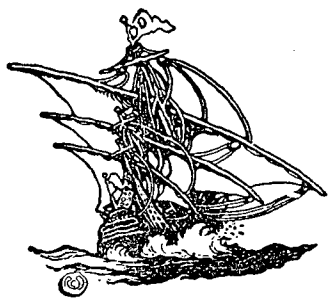
THE
SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY
OCTOBER 15, 1925



Anyway, Opium Won
John Palmer Gavit

The Jews Bend to a Great Task
Jacob Billikopf

Making the Social Sciences Sociable
Dexter M. Keezer

COMMUNITIES
INDUSTRY
EDUCATION
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The City Health Number

CITY health is not a luxury; it is grim necessity. Unless cities can contrive to purchase health for their teeming thousands and millions, they are doomed. City health might justly be called the science of survival in crowds. That is what *Dr. Haven Emerson* calls it in his stirring opening article for the November Graphic . . . . But if a city does see fit to invest public money in public health, the return on the investment is one of startling proportions. *Louis I. Dublin,* one of the country's leading experts in vital statistics, makes that clear—not in generalities but by marshalling hard cold figures from many sources . . . . *Sir Arthur Newsholme* is one of the most distinguished scholars in public health among the English-speaking peoples. He has spent most of two years in America in association with Johns Hopkins University. What he saw here and what he knows of British practice he sets side by side in another of these Graphic articles. Some things we do vastly better than the British or anybody else, but as for the general level of performance—read The Fever-Chart of Progress . . . . And before you lay the magazine down, turn to the very middle of it and study the fascinating picture-chart on which, after getting in touch with the sources of information, every Survey reader can enter for himself or herself the score of public health performance in his own town.

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THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

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The Gist of It

JOHN PALMER GAVIT is an historical figure in the life of The Survey—he was for its first five years an editor of The Commons, one of The Survey's parents—but he is also one of the most alert and thoughtful journalists of the day. He is writing from Geneva what he sees on and under the surface of the fascinating international experiment there in progress; during the past summer he has devoted himself especially to a study of the opium question, "by far the most complicated and exasperating," he writes, that he has ever tackled. The purpose of his present article (p. 67) is "to awaken the United States to the fact that it has not kept its promise."

THE plans of the Jewish Joint Distribution Committee for taking up again the great post-war task which it carried so long, focussing its fresh effort on returning the Russian Jew to the soil as a means of rehabilitation, are presented by Jacob Billikopf, executive director of the Federation of Jewish Charities in Philadelphia and a speaker at the conference when the new responsibility was offered and accepted (p. 71).

WHAT workers and employers really feel about one another when their relations are complicated by race is hinted at in the observations which Bruno Lasker records on p. 77. Long associate editor of The Survey, and now directing research in this field for The Inquiry, Mr. Lasker begs again and with his accustomed earnestness for fresh records of experience. Those who have first-hand observation to share will be warmly received if they communicate with The Inquiry at 129 East Fifty-second Street, New York.

A GRADUATE university that begins with a smoking room and finally acquires a professor and a text book is described by Dexter M. Keezer (p. 80) in his article on the Brookings Graduate School of Economics and Government in Washington, D. C. Mr. Keezer has taught economics at Cornell University and the University of Colorado and last year was a graduate student at Brookings.

PALOS VERDES is a large-scale garden suburb development in which pre-planning has been carried to an unusual extent. It is sketched on p. 83 from information furnished by the consultant in city planning who has had a large share in the project.

THREE scraps of interesting boys' work are brought together in the Communities department (p. 84). One, in San Francisco, is described by Mr. Price of the Community Chest; one records the origin of institutional scouting; one is a business man's own account of the community program which he heads in a small Wisconsin city.

SEYMOUR BARNARD contributes (p. 86) another of his amusing bits of ironic comment on city government; obviously he pays his respects to a generalized city and a generalized mayor. Mr. Barnard's adventures in spreading the gospel of neighborhood solidarity from the Peoples' Institute, United Neighborhood Guild of Brooklyn have several times been noted in The Survey, on March 15, 1925, for instance.

REHABILITATION of clients in business, turnover of staff, control of case work, all discussed by Maurice J. Karpf in his annual report of the Jewish Social Service Bureau of Chicago, are in turn commented on (p. 87) by Frank J. Bruno, now professor of applied sociology in Washington University, St. Louis.

WHAT might well be the twelve commandments of a social worker are given us (p. 89) by Annie Lockhart Chesley, secretary of the Paine Fund of the First Parish in Cambridge. She is the author of "Who are the Benefactors?"

IT is hardly necessary to introduce John A. Kingsbury of the Milbank Foundation to the readers of The Survey. Here he discusses the job of the health officer with statistics that illuminate his plea for the full-time job. (p. 91).

DR. JOHN N. FORCE, professor of epidemiology at the University of California writes of the smallpox situation in the United States (p. 93) with especial reference to the familiar conditions of his own state where he finds striking results of the opposition to vaccination.

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Courtesy of Canton Christian College

THE OPIUM DRAGON

In this poster published by the Association Opposing Poison of the People of China the characters at the top, translated into English, read "To unite strength against poison is the duty of all citizens." The farmer, the laborer, the merchant and the student are all attacking the opium dragon whose coils are named: opium, morphine, cocaine, heroin, little white pills and little golden pills containing opium, pills, etc. to help stop the use of opium smoking.

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THE SURVEY
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Anyway, "Opium" Won

By John Palmer Gavit

WHATEVER else may be said to have happened in the two opium conferences at Geneva—"opium" won. Out of all the marching and counter-marching, the drawing of swords and putting them up again, the rumors of defeats and famous victories, the traffic in opium and other narcotic drugs has gained a new lease of life. Whoever may have been pleased or disappointed by the outcome of the Drug Conference especially, I cannot learn that the traffickers in morphine, heroin and cocaine are shedding tears or looking with dismay upon the future.

To anyone who, whether as participant or as attentive spectator, sat through all the weeks between November 3, 1924, and February 19, 1925, as I did, in the midst of those conferences, it is no source of wonder that the ordinary folk of the forty nations represented therein—to say nothing of those of the nations not represented—were bewildered by the conflicting and often unintelligible reports which emanated from them. The writers of those reports were for the most part not only more or less subject to the national bias and prejudices of their respective national allegiances and a certain abiding jealousy of supposedly conflicting political and commercial interests; they were also more or less confused and bemuddled by lack of familiarity with an extraordinarily intricate and baffling subject. In which respect they were no worse off than all except a very few of the delegates! Even now, months afterward, the discussion of the results, even by those who might be supposed to have gained some degree of clarity, displays a continuing confusion of council. The only people concerned who knew precisely what they wanted and did not want, and who are quite clear about and content with what they got, are those who in one way or another make profit out of the traffic in narcotics. They are glad enough that nothing at all came or seems likely to come out of it at last. They are chuckling. I have heard them. On the other hand, there are some tried and true fighters of the drug-evil who wanted more than could be got, and who, rather than consent to any compromise, are rejoicing because, as they say, they "went down with flags still flying."

Well, I cannot share their complacency. I think it is based upon a mistaken idea of the situation.

It is not my intention to discuss the merits of the controversy which ended in the withdrawal of the American and Chinese delegations from Geneva. Opinion and feelings—especially feelings—will continue to differ about that, regardless of what anyone may say. What I wish to do is to draw attention to some of the larger aspects of the question, and suggest certain things which may be done in the circumstances as they exist.

IT is a cardinal error to suppose that the battle-line in this warfare will stand still anywhere; it is a still greater error to suppose that it is where it was in January, 1912, when the so-called "Hague Opium Convention of 1912" was produced. It is far in the rear of the firing-line of those days. We are no longer trying against heavy odds to defend the frontier of Belgium. We are, as it were, being driven across the Marne, and there have been no retarding battles in the swift retreat. Especially during the World War the campaign has been going almost by default. In that five years of turmoil, so far as international interest or action was concerned, the war against narcotics took its place with the war against Original Sin. It came to a standstill, and that, as in all such warfare, meant not standing still but retrogression.

Indeed, the war itself materially aggravated the evil. The widespread use of morphine and cocaine in the armies as anodynes against human agony, and to some extent as a means of mental relief from the deadly despairs and fears, disgusts and monotonies of war, turned loose at the end in many countries a considerable army of uncured and more or less incurable addicts to continue and spread their addiction. To spread—for one of the awful concomitants of this vice is a kind of perverted missionary impulse to propagate itself by making new addicts—quite apart from and in addition to the motive of gain by selling the stuff to them.

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Most inadequate is the realization of the fact that the character of the problem has changed greatly during the thirteen years since international agreement worthy of the name was first registered in the Hague Convention. Moreover, it is rather forgotten, or generally unknown, that for most of the nations now bound by it, it came into force only by reason of being included in the peace treaties. For practical purposes, prior to 1920, it had no substantial existence. Be that as it may, the evil is no longer an exotic affair of the Far East, of the eating, drinking and smoking of the "raw" and "prepared" opium after the time-entrenched fashions of India, China and other Oriental regions where the poppy can be profitably cultivated by reason of suitable climate and abundant cheap labor. However injurious those practices—and of course they are injurious in precisely the measure of the degree of addiction—the use of the narcotic in those relatively simple and primitive forms is giving way, even in the Far East, to that of the more concentrated and far more injurious forms in the *high-power drugs,* manufactured in the expensively equipped and scientifically-operated pharmaceutical laboratories of the lands which call themselves "civilized." Whereas in the former time the opium and the opium-habits of the Far East were creeping out into the West, now the flow is the other way. And that is not all: these drugs are equally deadly, and spreading ominously, in the countries where they are made, and across their borders to their neighbors. This has ceased to be a missionary question; it has become an international question of the first magnitude. The threat is against the welfare of all mankind. To this devil a white addict is as useful as a black or yellow; a child in school as an adult in a slum. To him a Chinese coolie and a Son of the American Revolution look precisely alike so long as alike they do him homage. His is a domain upon which the sun never sets.

ANOTHER thing inadequately realized is that whether or raw material or of manufactured drugs, the heart of the evil is in the *excess of production* beyond the very legitimate needs of medicine and science. The production of these things is prodigiously beyond those needs—stretching the term "legitimate" to the utmost of your daring. The Health Committee of the League of Nations, the Opium Advisory Committee of the League, a mixed sub-committee of both, and the Commission of Experts of the Second Opium Conference, produced a formula representing generously the amount of raw opium and cocaine needed *per capita per annum* for medical and scientific use by the population of the world within reach of modern medical service:

Raw opium, 450 milligrams (about 7 grains)
Cocaine, 7 milligrams (about .11 of a grain)

This works out for a population of 744,000,000 (out of the world's assumed total of 1,747,000,000) as accessible to Western-trained medical service, to a total "medical and scientific" need *in tons* about as follows:

For medicinal opium	100 tons
" morphine	136 "
" codein	84 "
" heroin	15 "
Total world need	336 "

If we add to this an allowance of say 70 milligrams *per capita* for such further proportion of the natives of Asia and Africa as might somehow get access to doctors—call it 57,000,000 more—we get an additional *four* tons.

But let us be generous, and allow the full 450 milligrams of raw opium per annum for everybody in the world. That will give us as the outside conceivable legitimate need 786 tons.

Of cocaine, at 7 milligrams per capita per annum, the 744,000,000 of population estimated as conceivably within reach of modern medical service would call for a little more than *five* tons. If every person in the world got his 7 milligrams of cocaine, it would require a trifle over *twelve* tons.

Now, nobody knows—there is the wildest guessing about it, varying with the motive of the guesser to exaggerate or to minimize—how much raw opium is produced in the world. But conservative estimates, by persons interested only in the truth, converge strikingly toward a total annual production (including 5,000 tons attributed to China under the present saturnalia of wholly unlawful poppy-culture) of about 8,600 tons, to be compared with the world need of 786. A good deal more than ten to one. If the production be greater—so much the worse.

As for cocaine, there are no dependable figures about production. But I have seen an offer published in Japan, of 100 tons of cocaine, to which was added: "Can supply any amount up to 1,000 tons." And that, in the trade-parlance of the Far East, means simply: "Quantity unlimited; go as far as you like." One hundred tons of cocaine would supply a half-grain dose for every man, woman and child in the world—white, yellow, brown, black and all other colors known between the two poles; civilized and uncivilized—and go half-way round again. In two ships at Calcutta on one day there were seized the equivalent of 850,000 doses of cocaine. Germany alone for 1920 acknowledged the export and re-export of more than 5 tons of cocaine; France alone of nearly 3 tons. Switzerland, whose 4,000,000 or less of population entitles her (at 7 milligrams per capita) to 28/1000 of one ton, reported the manufacture in 1921 of 1.6 tons.

So it is obviously far within the truth to assert that the world's production of narcotics is undoubtedly very much more than ten times the most extravagant estimate of the world's legitimate needs.

Over-production inevitably means addiction. Nobody raises poppies on a large scale, or cultivates the coca-shrub, out of mere perversity, or simply as a contribution to the landscape. Nobody manufactures or buys drugs in order to have a large collection of them. Every ounce of narcotic produced beyond the needs of medicine and science means an ounce seeking a consumer, and the only possible consumer is the addict, actual or prospective, for aside from those legitimate needs there is no other conceivable use for these things. Over-production absolutely compels the finding or the making of a market, whether among the reckless and ill-instructed youth of America or Europe, or the unsuspecting folk of half-civilized or savage lands, ever ready to assume the white man's vices—at the white man's price!

THE defect in the Hague Convention of 1912, considerable as that achievement was compared with the nothing, the chaos, that went before, was that it consisted chiefly of pious declarations of intention. It offered no machinery

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for the gathering of the information which is indispensable to any practical international control, or for the enforcement of its provisions. But it did, in Article 9, contain a promise —to which every party to that Convention is pledged—*to limit the manufacture of these substances to the bona fide needs of medicine and science.* That is the plain meaning of the Article, notwithstanding the slippery word "legitimate," or the "weasel" phrase, "unless laws or regulations *on the subject* are already in existence."

Not one single nation, party to that Convention—including the United States of America and Great Britain—has kept that promise. Germany and Switzerland especially are scandalously violating it, flooding the whole world with an inundation of manufactured narcotics.

I am perfectly aware of the existence of the federal legislation on this subject in the United States, and of the British Dangerous Drugs Act. It would not be true to say that they have been without effect. Drugs of American and British manufacture are no longer found among the seizures in China and elsewhere in the Far East. But as administered they fall short of *limiting manufacture to the needs of medicine and science,* and only by that limitation can the flood be stopped.

So far as the United States is concerned, it may be that the Constitution interferes with direct limitation. I suspect that it does; that is a question for the courts. When it came to the prohibition of alcoholic liquors for beverage use, the Constitution stood across the road, and we amended the Constitution. I have heard of no proposed legislation which might have tested the constitutional question; nor of anybody suggesting an amendment to the Constitution so as to permit us to carry out our pledge. And as for our state legislation, it is a sickening patchwork: New York state, for example, without any anti-narcotic law at all and drugs purchasable on the public streets; some states with laws enacted in 1902; no suggestion anywhere of a coherent policy.

"We are doing the best we can under existing conditions," I am told. Well, that is precisely what Great Britain, India, France, Holland, Japan, Portugal, told Mr. Porter in the Second Opium Conference. And by his mouth we are on record as not accepting any excuse of "practical" obstacles. He said in so many words:

"But you promised. You made a contract with us. It is not permitted to a party to a contract to plead that he has found it impracticable to perform it. When are you going to begin to keep your word?"

We are no worse than the rest. In some respects we are very much better. But when you come down to brass tacks *we have not kept our pledge,* and our excuse in the last analysis is about the same as theirs: "Our intentions are impeccable; but—there are practical obstacles."

Whatever may be the difficulties—and they are many, even if not insurmountable—in the way of curtailing the production of raw material, the production of the manufactured drugs can be controlled, limited, or even prescribed altogether (the United States has demonstrated its power even without constitutional amendment in respect of heroin by prohibiting the import of raw opium for its manufacture) whenever the nations are determined to do it.

There is only one place where the limiting of manufacture can be done, and that is *at the factory*—the place whence every grain of morphine, heroin, cocaine must emerge at the outset of its hunt for victims. It is possible to conceal, or to overlook inadvertently, or intentionally, a field of poppies in an outlying district of India, China or Persia; and the coca-shrub grows wild in the mountains of Peru and Bolivia; is used for hedges as well as cultivated in Java. The making of "raw," or from it of "prepared," opium is as simple and easy as the making of moonshine whiskey in a lost Kentucky valley. But a pharmaceutical laboratory cannot be hidden in the woods. Drug factories are relatively few, and the governments know exactly where they are; already they are subjected to license and inspection.

In the Opium Conferences every suggestion that production, whether of raw material or of manufactured drugs, be limited, was resisted. And the bottom reason for the resistance was obvious. The governments know that there is a vast overproduction; but every nation manufacturing drugs has an ambition *to compete for the whole market,* stolidly indifferent to the fact that this inevitably means the creation of a vast surplus, which in the nature of the case *must* find destination in addicts all over the world. Each government engages in the futility of trying to keep out of its own homeland the nefarious drug-product of the others, while refusing to cease the effort to send out its own. And parallel with this, those having possessions in the Far East use the vices of their subject peoples as a source of revenue.

From any angle of approach, whether that of belief that the most important thing is to curtail production of the raw material and so shut off the supply of stuff out of which to make the more powerful drugs, or that of conviction that the first thing to do is to throttle the drugs at the factory, the fact is glaring that action waits upon knowledge, and that we have no means of knowledge. For any worth-while control, either of production or of traffic, to meet the legitimate needs of the world and limit supply accordingly, there must be precise information, not only as to needs and the sources and quantities of supply but as to the channels and methods of the illicit distribution of the surplus. At present such information is simply nonexistent. There is hardly material for intelligent guessing. Until dependable figures and facts are available and widely public, the world cannot be awakened, and without that awakening those who do understand the situation and desire to remedy it cannot have the backing of the kind of public opinion necessary to compel legislation and administrative action.

THE drug convention adopted by the Second Opium Conference is weaker than it would have been had the Americans remained to the end—even though they had not seen fit to sign it after all. But it is undoubtedly a substantial advance upon the Hague Convention. It stiffens and clarifies definitions, pledges the contracting powers to consider the possibility of punishing their nationals for illegitimate drug transactions in other countries, provides for the exchange of information and for the inclusion under the Convention of new habit-forming narcotics which may in future become a peril. It strengthens the provisions for the use of import certificates guaranteeing at least the technical lawfulness of narcotic shipments in international traffic. Among its signal defects are its failure to prohibit the reexport of narcotics from any country lawfully importing

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them (as the First Conference did prohibit it with reference to the "prepared" opium used exclusively for smoking); its failure to provide for the heavy cash bonding of persons dealing in narcotics, to abolish the profit from illicit transactions which is their principal incentive.

Regardless of these defects and others which can be mentioned, the convention does provide for the main thing that is needed immediately. Its central feature and backbone is its provision for the establishment of a Permanent Central Board, whose principal business would be to gather information about production, supplies, distribution and traffic, and the declared needs of the nations; and especially to watch the international traffic in narcotics with a view especially of suppressing the illicit traffic. It gives to the Central Board a power which I believe to be unparalleled in international machinery in time of peace. The Board is authorized by Article 24, in the event of an excessive and unexplained accumulation of narcotics in any country, and a belief by the Board that that country is in danger of becoming a center of illegitimate traffic therein, "to recommend that no further exports of the substances covered by the present Convention or any of them shall be made to the country concerned until the Board reports that it is satisfied as to the situation in that country."

The powers and scope of the Board are far inferior to what they should be; to what was intended by those who originated the idea; to what they will be in practice and by logical development if the Board ever comes into being. But I believe its powers are as great as can be obtained for it in the present condition of world-intelligence on the subject—if indeed they are not so great that in fact the Convention will not be ratified by the nations necessary under its terms to bring it into force. It provides for the disclosure of conditions about which those interested in this traffic are, to say the least, not anxious to have the publicity which surely will tend to destroy it. However dissatisfied we may be with the insufficiency of the document, it is the best we can get at this stage, and it is a great deal better than nothing.

In absence of such ratification, the Convention is so much spoiled white paper. For it cannot go into effect, and therefore the Central Board cannot be instituted, until ratification by ten powers, seven of which must be of the membership of the Council of the League of Nations with the addition of the United States and Germany, and at least two of the seven must be among the four *permanent* members of the Board.*

So, those who believe, as I do, that substantial progress was registered in the Convention adopted by the Second Conference, however much they may regret that it was not greater, and whatever they may think as to the wisdom of the United States delegation in withdrawing from the Conference, must exert themselves to induce or compel their governments to ratify the Convention, with whatever reservations as to special points, if only in order to get the Central Board into being and functioning, and so make a beginning of a body of knowledge as to the situation. This will be no small task. The United States, which hitherto has taken a leading part in the anti-narcotic warfare, displays at present no interest in the matter, and its leadership in this field gives the impression of distinct hostility. The nations which are the greatest producers of narcotics and in which originate most of the smuggled drugs which are flowing in prodigious quantities about the world, especially into China, exhibited in the Conference very little enthusiasm for any measures designed to restrict and control either output or traffic. Others whose cooperation is indispensable to effective international action were to say the least lukewarm. As things stand now, except for the great publicity excited by its more dramatic episodes, the Conference, so far as practical results are concerned, looks like a total loss.

I purposely refrain from discussing in detail the First Conference, in which the eight powers located or having possessions in the Far East (Great Britain, France, India, Holland, Portugal, Japan, Siam and China) struggled with the question of the suppression of opium-smoking, which is "temporarily authorized" under the Hague Convention. The only really important things done by that Conference were to declare in favor of making the business a government monopoly, and to prohibit re-export of "prepared" opium. It was the failure of that Conference to take any definite steps to carry out the pledge of 1912 to suppress opium-smoking, and thereby to discourage production of raw material, and the refusal of the Second Conference to take up that subject as within its competence, which resulted in the American and Chinese withdrawal.

MEANWHILE, regardless of the ratification of the Convention, the time is ripe for the creation of a permanent, voluntary international organization, outside and independent of, and in the last analysis superior to, the official machinery; to create, clarify, and effectively focus the world public opinion and to unify the leadership now so insufficiently informed and so divided as to basic ideas of policy and strategy. Such an organization would bring together and be a clearing house for the various organizations now existing and encourage the formation of similar bodies in countries not yet awakened. It would enlist the interest, intelligence and cooperation of the great religious bodies of all lands and all faiths, and aid them in provoking to effective impulse and power the machinery which can put faith into action. It would gather, correlate, interpret and publish in all languages the facts (including those reported by the Central Board if and when established.) It would cooperate with and at the same time watch and spur the public authorities of all kinds charged with responsibility in any and every phase of this subject; advocating necessary and opposing improper or obstructive legislation. It would help the governments to get together, to work together, and to move forward.

There must be not only an awakening throughout the world to the present changed and vastly more menacing situation, but a completely altered point of view. The world must cease to regard these substances as ordinary articles of commerce and competition. Overproduction of shoes is not really overproduction as long as anybody is barefoot; nor of bread while anybody is hungry. But overproduction of and ordinary commercial competition in narcotics means that thousands of human beings must be enslaved by a habit which destroys both body and soul. These

*The Board is to be appointed by the Council of the League, but the United States and Germany are to be invited to participate in the appointment. The permanent members of the Council are Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan. The other six members are elected annually by the Assembly. At this writing they are Belgium, Brazil, Czechoslovakia, Spain, Sweden and Uruguay.

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things must be treated, not so much like high explosives as like rattlesnakes or typhus germs—supposing that an infinitesimal quantity of these were necessary for the bona fide uses of medicine. This is a matter, not for pious declarations of good intentions, but for such united action as the world takes against epidemics of virulent disease.

"Opium," which knows neither pity nor patriotism, and to which all flags and skin-pigments look alike, is winning by default while the nations suspect and snarl at each other. Here and there outposts, or even considerable sectors of the anti-narcotic forces, are trying bravely, with old weapons and obsolete tactics, sometimes with a measure of local success, to stem the onrush; but in general the enemy has swept and is sweeping round the flanks and taking us in the rear. We have reached in the war against narcotics a stage analogous to that in the Great War, when separate interest, separate judgment, separate action, must give way to unity. At present there is little sign of that unity.

The Jews Bend to a Great Task

By Jacob Billikopf

The Jewish Joint Distribution Committee sets out to raise $15,000,000 and reopen its over-seas operations. It will spend this sum not alone in the refugee, child-caring, cultural and other activities throughout Europe with which its name has largely been associated in the past, but the greater part of it in Russia, in colonizing and agricultural reconstruction. Here is projected not only a program of human conservation matching the great undertakings of the war period; but also what may in time prove an outstanding adventure in reversing the currents that are piling up our cities.

THE national conference which met in Philadelphia in mid-September at the call of the Jewish Joint Distribution Committee marked the resumption of activity, on a large scale, of one of the greatest relief agencies in the world.

There is still a great deal of misery, of suffering, of want among Jews in various countries of Europe. But in putting this far-flung humane machine again into motion, its gears are shifted from the work of alleviation which so largely absorbed its energy in the immediate aftermath of the World War, to work of permanent reconstruction.

In terms of help for stricken humanity the great task set is the placing of tens of thousands of Jewish families on the soil in Russia.

In the language of dollars and cents, the immediate goal set is the raising of $15,000,000 to this end, and the unanimous decision of the Philadelphia conference, reached after three sessions of spirited debate, virtually assures it. The campaign will be led by such men as Louis Marshall, president of the American Jewish Relief Committee, Felix M. Warburg of New York and David Brown of Detroit, who was at the head of the last campaign in 1921. At Philadelphia, Julius Rosenwald of Chicago started the ball rolling by a conditional pledge of one million dollars. Of as great significance in making for unity was Mr. Warburg's announcement that he would match his recent gift of $500,000 to the Hebrew University at Jerusalem with a gift in equal sum to the Russian program and other relief activities. The importance which attaches to these gifts lies not only in their amount, considerable though that is, but also in the prestige which acts of this kind lend to an undertaking. The pace has been set by leaders whose judgment and sympathies carry conviction.

I said the conference marked the resumption of activity on a *large scale*. The reason for it is this: technically, the Joint Distribution Committee ceased to exist as an active organization in 1923. At that time, it was thought the Jews of Europe would, in the future, be able to look after their own needs without further assistance from America. Announcement was, therefore, made at the time that there would be no more "drives" and no further solicitation of funds for European relief purposes.

There was, however, one field of activity which the "Joint" (as the Joint Distribution Committee is popularly called) did not relinquish, and that was its agrarian experimental work in southern Russia. Under the direction of Joseph Rosen, an agriculturalist of international standing, this work was continued, operating under an appropriation of $400,000. Already nearly 30,000 persons are placed on some 500,000 acres of land given to the settlers free of charge.

In June, David Brown returned from his trip around the world, having revisited the fields of relief operations in which he had been such a factor; bringing with him thrilling reports of practical demonstrations in the Crimea and the Ukraine, and endorsing, as a successful business executive, the report and recommendations of Dr. Rosen. That reopened the whole situation. Mr. Brown's faith in the program is witnessed by his laying aside his business responsibilities for a year, until the money is raised and the work well launched.

A new chapter is thus unfolding in the history of the Jewish people which so far as numbers go will excel the exodus from Egypt. This chapter will prove of interest not only to the Jew engaged in social service but to others interested in the problem of mass immigration and in the "back to the soil" movement.

There are upwards of three million Jews in Soviet Russia alone. As a result of the Revolution a very considerable number of these people have been deprived of their means of earning a livelihood. As pointed out by Mr. Rosen in his report, which formed the basis of the conference, the fundamental reason why the Jews are in so difficult a position is that so great a proportion earn their livelihood by trading. Under the present economic structure of Russia there is no such place for merchandizing as is possible under

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a system of unrestricted trade. Private trade is only tolerated insofar as it fits in between the government and co-operative trade. In this connection it must be remembered that even under pre-war conditions, when trade was unrestricted and emigration was taking care of vast numbers of Jews, the economic condition of the small traders was exceedingly low. My point is, that in Russia today we are not faced with the problem of ordinary relief—that of helping those who are usually the concern of our charitable agencies—but of reconstructing a scheme of life for hitherto self-dependent people. To quote Mr. Rosen:

> There actually are thousands of families in the small towns and in the larger cities whose only source of existence at present are the more or less irregular doles they receive from their more fortunate relatives living in the United States, South America or Africa. There are other thousands who are not even as fortunate as that. There are thousands of people in the small Jewish towns especially who would be glad to dig the soil with their fingers to eke out an existence for their families, but have absolutely nothing to do. The demoralizing and degrading effect of this enforced idleness, especically on the younger generation, is hard to picture. It is really heart-breaking to see the spiritual agony of these people.

Speaking in the large, three alternatives are left for the three million Jews of Russia—starvation, emigration, adaptation.

Starvation actually goes on. As pointed out by Mr. Rosen, more people died of starvation in Russia in the last few years than were killed in the World War, our Civil War and Revolution combined.

There is no emigration to speak of. Where the doors are not closed, it is made clear that traders are not wanted.

The hopeful alternative lies in a process of re-adaptation of the Jews in Russia to their changed environment.

The analysis made by Mr. Rosen, shows that of the three million Jews now living in Russia.

5 per cent are engaged in agricultural pursuits
10 per cent are professionals, including government officials
15 per cent are laborers, artisans and "kustary" (handicraft workers)
70 per cent are traders and *Luft Menshen*.

The *Luft Menshen* category is the most numerous. It includes quite a number of intellectuals and artisans, but a majority are of the trading class. It is this group that presents the most serious problem of mass adaptation.

To save the situation these percentages must be changed. Of all the possibilities investigated by Mr. Rosen, agriculture appealed to him most. He gave seven reasons:

1. The fundamental advantage is that (under Russian conditions) in colonization we are not confronted from the very start with market conditions. We approach the problem principally as a matter of family or group production for their own consumption. This is not possible in any other occupation. Markets and marketing conditions play here only a secondary part.
2. The sellers do not depend on anybody but themselves to supply them with work.
3. Instead of "declassed pariahs" who are only tolerated, the sellers at once become full-fledged citizens of the country, enjoying equal rights with the privileged class of workingmen and peasants, for themselves and their children.
4. The Government is in full accord with the proposition, and as a matter of fact, furnishes by far the greatest part of the necessary investment by supplying:
   a—free land
   b—greatly reduced rates of transportation, over the government railroad
   c—free tracts of timber land for cutting lumber
   d—some cash credits
5. Under these circumstances, colonization becomes the most expedient and cheapest form of reconstructive work for a philanthropic organization such as ours.
6. From the point of view of getting our funds and help directly to the people who are to be benefited by us, no other line of reconstruction work could compare with colonization.
7. And last, but not least, we must not overlook the eugenic value of the colonization project. No other people is so greatly in need of the revitalizing effect of an agricultural element, as is the Jewish people, and particularly the Russian branch of it.

This rehabilitation or settlement can and must be done on a large scale; and it is to this plan that the Joint Distribution Committee will devote its efforts.

As might have been expected a number of questions were raised at the Philadelphia conference.

There were those who feared that the efforts of the Joint in Russia might be misunderstood and in this way interfere with the Jewish colonization work which is now carried forward in Palestine by the World Zionist organization under the British mandate for the League of Nations. My belief is that there will prove to be no justification for this fear. Even those of us who are not directly affiliated with the political activity of the Zionists appreciate the splendid colonization work which is being done by that organization. What it has accomplished in this direction in the last ten years is past the experimental stage.

Jewish colonization in Palestine should and will by all means be encouraged, for it offers a means for establishing a large number of Jews on the soil of their historic country. In Palestine they are given an opportunity to become self-supporting and to live in an atmosphere created entirely by themselves. But Palestine cannot solve the problem of the three million Jews now living in Russia. Even if these three million were ultimately to be provided for to their complete satisfaction on Russian soil, there would still be great numbers of Jews left in other parts of the world—Jews requiring assistance—from whom the Zionists will be able to draw for the purpose of the Jewish resettlement of Palestine.

Once these questions were thoroughly ventilated, there was no division of opinion. The six hundred men and women who constituted the Philadelphia conference, coming as they did from all parts of the country, intuitively felt the task before them. They heard the report of Dr. Lee K. Frankel on the medical work which must be done; of the past activities of the Joint Distribution Committee by Felix Warburg, Louis Marshall and James N. Rosenberg; of the plight of the refugees, as depicted by David M. Bressler; of the problem of the children of Europe, as presented by Dr. Solomon Lowenstein; of reconstruction work by Colonel Herbert H. Lehman; of cultural needs, as presented by the writer, and of the great resettlement plan, as outlined by Mr. Rosen. The conference was in every sense an achievement and it will take some time before its entire significance will be fully appreciated.

The Joint Distribution Committee has been called the heart of the Jews of America. It will beat again to the need of tens of thousands of homes now in the grip of despair. What is more, it will act as a great unifying force for the Jewish people the world over.

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The Common Welfare

THE anthracite strike passed through its first month as tranquilly as the Hudson flows between its banks on a summer day. Only a few birds of promise darted more or less aimlessly over its surface. President Lewis of the United Mine Workers and Mr. Inglis, chairman of the operators conference committee, were invited to confidential conferences with Governor Pinchot. The merchants of Scranton have been bestirring themselves to bring the two sides together. Business in the anthracite towns hits the bottom when the miners go on strike diet and wear last year's second best clothes. But the miners and operators show no signs at this writing of attempting a meeting of minds on the issues between them. The operators have permitted their legal advisor to act as their principal spokesman and he, in the spirit of a prosecuting attorney, has been indulging in ex parte denunciations of the miners for their refusal to arbitrate which are not calculated to create a conciliatory mood on either side. While conditions remain at a standstill in the anthracite fields a speech by President Lewis delivered on September 26 in West Virginia and an address by John Hayes Hammond, chairman of the late United States Coal Commission, have turned public interest toward Washington.

Possibly by way of calling public attention to the fact that the miners have two main armies, and that in a crisis the vast bituminous forces might be marched to the aid of the anthracite men, President Lewis renewed his charge that many of the largest bituminous operators are violating the Jacksonville agreement—the three-year contract signed by the miners and the operators at Jacksonville, Florida, early in 1924. Certain of these large operators own both union and non-union mines and the nub of Mr. Lewis' charge is that they have closed down their union properties and have concentrated their business in the non-union mines. Others still have frankly thrown the agreement overboard and after short shut down have resumed on an open shop basis. For this turn of events Mr. Lewis holds the federal administration morally responsible.

His argument is to this general effect. It is reported that when he appeared before the United States Coal Commission in 1923 he contended that the most important question for the commission to decide was whether or not the existence of the miners' union was or was not in the public interest. He contended, of course, that it was; he conceded that upon thorough investigation the Commission might find that it was not. What he asked was a definite finding of fact. The Commission declined a categorical answer to the question. The next year was a presidential election year. The agreement between the miners and the bituminous oprators was due to expire. Secretary Hoover bestirred himself to keep the peace, to induce the parties to enter into a three-year agreement. The agreement was made. Secretary Hoover claimed credit for its consummation in his annual report for 1924. Mr. Lewis holds that in supporting the union in this negotiation, Mr. Hoover, in behalf of the administration, in effect answered in the affirmative the question he had put to the Coal Commission. His contention now is, however, that since the Jacksonville agreement was signed neither Mr. Hoover nor any other member of the Administration has been at pains to make the public understand that the miners' union did as a matter of fact have official support, was, as it were, officially recognized as an organization whose existence is in the public interest. To this failure of moral support, Mr. Lewis attributes much of the failure of the public to understand the miners' objectives in their struggle to organize the non-union bituminous fields in West Virginia and the issues in the anthracite strike. If the anthracite deadlock should persist and the government should continue to encourage the use of substitutes—principally the product of the non-union bituminous areas—Mr. Lewis seems to intimate that his allegations as to the violations of the Jacksonville agreement would be pressed, and possibly made the justification for a general bituminous suspension, which would tie up approximately 70 per cent of the country's soft coal mines.

IF the anthracite impasse continues until one or both sides begin to lose their temper—if the anthracite miners in particular should grow unduly restive—the veiled implications of Mr. Lewis' statements might become matters for serious consideration. It would require tact, skill, statesmanship to avert serious consequences to the public. It is precisely because the anthracite situation is so intimately tied up with the entire coal situation that it requires unusually delicate handling at this time. Under the circumstances, it seems to us unfortunate that Mr. Hammond as chairman of the late United States Coal Commission, after having been in conference with President Coolidge as the newspapers report, should be advocating the one measure that above all others is calculated to influence the minds of the anthracite miners with resentment. Speaking before a meeting conducted by the National Civic Federation in New York City, he said that the state of Pennsylvania had it within its power to start the resumption of anthracite production. He referred to the miners' certificate law of the state which makes two years of experience in the anthracite mines a prerequisite to employment as a full-fledged miner. If the state would abrogate this law, he said, there would be an influx of competent miners from the bituminous fields with the result that the strike would be broken. Apart from the fact that such an attempt to break the strike would be the surest way to provoke violence—apart from the fact that no one who knows the political situation in Pennsylvania would ever conceive of the possibility that the state legis-

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lature would revoke the miners' certificate law—this particular suggestion that the law should be revoked makes the miners despair of intelligent public understanding of the hazards of their occupation. The miners' certificate law was enacted years before the union of the miners had been recognized by the operators, years before the union had the allegiance of more than a handful of miners. Its enactment was primarily due to a series of horrible disasters in the anthracite fields. It has operated to protect the union from strike-breakers; but that has been a by-product. Its object was and is to protect the men in the mines, where tons of explosives are used to blast out the coal, from the menace of association in this hazardous enterprise with inexperienced men.

If the anthracite strike is to be settled before irreparable damage is done to all parties concerned, someone will have to develop a larger view of the problem and its public implications than the spokesmen of the operators or the miners, or the chairman of the late United States Coal Commission have made manifest.

TO this generation, as perhaps to none other before it, has come a realization of the risks and the potentialities of childhood. The business of averting those risks and realizing those potentialities has enlisted the scientists, the administrators, economists, educators, and so on through a formidable array of specialists, not including the cross classifications of parent and humanitarian which unite them all. The result is a welter of data and organization on behalf of childhood which is hardly less formidable than the dangers it aims to abolish. The American Academy of Political and Social Science offers a guiding thread to the maze, together with a number of original contributions in material, in its Annals for September, 1925, devoted to New Values in Child Welfare. The first section stresses social devices to keep the child in the place where nature set him—a family—and the psychological approach which has modified some of the more recent efforts in education and in the prevention of delinquency; the second half includes the proceedings of the Third All-Philadelphia Conference of last March on Everychild in Philadelphia. Not till very recently could such an illustrious group of contributors to this theme have been gathered together. Perhaps in theory at least we *have* started on the long road toward giving every child his chance.

IN appraising the record of the United States as one of the signatories of the Hague Convention, the record which Mr. Gavit sharply challenges in his article on the ever-baffling opium problem (p. 67), it is important to discriminate between legislation and the administration of the law.

The Hague Convention divides the opium question into two parts: smoking and medicinal opium. The United States, by the Narcotic Drugs Import and Export Act of 1922, prohibits the entry into the country or any territory under its control of smoking opium, even for transportation or transshipment to another country; and in practice prohibits the manufacture of smoking opium in the country by the only means the Federal Government now has at its disposal—a prohibitive tax.

Under the Convention the signatory powers bound themselves "to limit exclusively to medical and legitimate purposes the manufacture, sale and use of morphine, cocaine and their respective salts" and in order to carry out this obligation, to require licensing or permits of all persons engaged in the business and to limit the use of these salts to authorized persons. They also agreed to prevent export except to persons who have licenses of the country to which the goods are exported. This obligation the United States undertook to meet by the Harrison Act, as amended by the Revenue Act of 1918, and by the Narcotic Drug Import and Export Act. The Federal Government has no power to regulate directly the manufacture and use of medicinal opium, so Congress adopted the device of laying taxes on manufacture of and traffic in these drugs. The acts require the registry of all persons engaged in import, manufacture, or trade, and limit the sale for consumption to sale through doctors or veterinarians or for scientific purposes. Each step in the process from the time the crude opium reaches the country till its final disposition is guarded by statute and required records.

The Narcotic Drugs Import and Export Act prohibits the export of opium or its products except to individuals in countries which are parties to the Convention, and even then only if the country in question has an adequate system of permits or licenses to control the imports. The Act goes further; it puts upon the federal authorities the duty of determining whether the drug is to be applied exclusively to medical and legitimate uses in the importing country and that it will not be exported. The same Act forbids the import into the United States of any salts of opium or cocaine and only permits the entry of sufficient crude opium and coca leaves in an amount "necessary to provide for medical and legitimate uses." As there is no legitimate use except medical and scientific, it necessarily follows that no import into the United States of opium or coca leaves is legally permissible except for these objects.

The act sets up a board with power to determine the amount of the necessary import so that the board is at fault if there is produced in the United States an excess of the drug required for medical and scientific purposes. There is no other "legitimate" purpose in the United States. As a matter of fact the board has not thus far seen fit to fix that amount. But an examination of the records of import into the United States will show a very great decrease in the average amount imported since the Jones-Miller Act was passed. In 1922, 2,161,488 ounces of raw opium and in addition a considerable quantity of morphine and codein came in. In 1923 the crude opium import had been cut down to 1,589,662 ounces, and there was no import of salts of opium. This figure compares with an average for the period 1910-1919 of 366,054 pounds. The exports for 1923 also show a striking decrease over 1922 and preceding years, being roughly only about a third of the export for 1922 and 1921.

Undoubtedly a considerable amount of the drugs manu-

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factured in the United States slips through the meshes of the law and is used by addicts, but since the domestic market is so profitable it is very improbable that any of it leaves the country. It is evident that it is the administration of the act rather than the act itself which is at fault. A movement which has been in evidence to increase the number of inspectors deserves the attention of these interested in reducing the supply of narcotics available for improper uses.

Nor is it enough, even for the protection of its own people, that the United States should have enacted legislation to carry out its duties under the Convention; it is necessary that there be active and continual cooperation with other nations. The Hague Convention is not the last word in international drug regulation and the United States has been foremost in saying so.

Mr. Gavit in his magazine and newspaper articles and in the book he has been engaged upon is performing a genuine public service in making evident the need for further steps and in helping to arouse the American public to recognize that no one nation can stand alone and protect its own people against this scourge. The national links which will ultimately shackle the drug evil are as strong as the international chain.

"NO machine, organization or method for assimilating individual immigrants will work. You cannot lump them as 'immigrants' and deal with each individual in the same way whether he comes from north, south, east or west Europe. You cannot deal with the new immigrant and the old, the first generation and the second, in the same way. In order really to influence large numbers of these people you must deal with existing groups, understand their needs and aspirations and become intimately acquainted with their leaders."

Such is the statement of policy of the newly established International Community Center in New York, which is making the interesting experiment of going it alone as a center of more or less self-supporting services to foreign-born men. The idea of dealing with groups—the groups which naturally and spontaneously arise in foreign-born communities—is of course one which has been strongly stressed by students of Americanization, particularly John Daniels and his colleagues who contributed to the Carnegie Corporation studies directed some years ago by Allen T. Burns. It was the idea on which Thomas L. Cotton based his useful work as secretary for the foreign-born at the Twenty-third Street branch of the New York Y. M. C. A. For one reason or another the idea did not take firm root in that particular institutional environment, and Mr. Cotton, with the advice and support of an American and foreign-speaking committees, organized an independent agency during the spring and got it under way during the past summer.

Two "nationality committees"—one of Armenians and one of Russians, are now functioning. Each employs its own nationality secretary, and each is represented on the general committee which directs the enterprise. A Spanish-speaking volunteer secretary is now laying the foundations for a similar organization among Spanish-speaking New Yorkers. The Center leases and operates a modest four-story building which serves not only as an office to which individuals can bring all their personal difficulties—which are handled so far as possible by reference to specialized agencies—but as a meeting-place for foreign-speaking groups of whatever legitimate purpose. The building is to serve as "a laboratory for sympathetic experimenting on the problems of adjustment, cooperation and contribution of foreign-born men to American life."

THOSE coming to the Center for service are expected to pay in fees or assist by giving of their time in service to others. "The response to this method has been most encouraging," comments Mr. Cotton. "Their very determination to retain their self-respect and independence, as well as their fear of becoming involved in our immigration laws, has thrown foreign-born men in all too many instances back into the clutches of the unscrupulous. Once the foreigner learns of a place where he can pay his way and receive honest service we have found that he not only returns again and again but becomes an enthusiastic supporter. The record of twelve thousand interviews in a year is indicative."

The nationality secretary studies to meet the needs of his own group, in ways like these:

Prior to the coming of the immigrant, there is frequently need of counsel with relatives here. There may be need of affidavits, bonds and letters to American consuls. When he arrives, he needs a decent place to live at a very modest price. Our nationality secretaries, knowing their local quarters, have excellent opportunities to place young men in such accommodations. The immigrant must secure work quickly. If he cannot speak English he must apply in his own language. One of the great services of our secretaries is interviewing such men and fitting them into jobs they can swing during their few months in America. By following them up we eliminate much waste effort and ultimately place them in positions where education and earning go on together.

The next immediate need is English, and we provide classes —beginning, intermediate and advanced. We frequently discover men of exceptional talent and show them how they may become self-supporting or secure scholarships in American colleges.

Many difficulties arise before the immigrant can get into any community life in the United States, due to his lack of knowledge of our language and institutions. If he were in his own country he would know how to handle these difficulites, but here in strange surroundings he must turn to someone for honest advice. Some of these problems have to do with his legal status, citizenship, insurance and deportation in case he becomes a public charge before securing citizenship. There are also questions of family adjustment, health and accident.

The young immigrant man has little opportunity for recreation, sociability or physical development here. Here he turns to his own groups, but the program of these educational, recreational or athletic organizations is most inadequate. Their situation is so complex that they can rarely realize their own ideals, and in the best of them there is no relationship with American organizations of the same sort. The nationality secretaries try to help these organizations in their own programs and invite them to participate in our work. Sometimes we succeed in interesting entire groups by offering them the facilities of our buildings.

One of the responsibilities of our secretaries is to help in bridging the gap betwen the first and second generations by bringing the father into touch with American organizations so that he may learn to understand his son's apparent idiosyn-

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crasies. Another way this gap may be bridged is for the father to take definite responsibilities in our organization, serving on committees and showing the son that Americans do appreciate what the older generation has to offer.

While similar services have been rendered by other organizations—usually, it is true, as a by-product of a much broader institutional program—the emphasis laid upon group contacts and the effort to put the enterprise on a self-supporting basis, without benefit of religious or propaganda appeal, makes the adventure worth watching.

ADDED point is given to the discussion of smallpox as a current menace, which Professor Force offers on page 91, by statistics recently published by the League of Nations which showed that the United States leads the world in the reported number of cases of smallpox. As against 24,067 cases in all of Russia, for example, we can offer the infamous count of 55,538 for 1924. Nearly 10,000 of these cases occurred in California; while the counts from Ohio and Michigan were around the 5,000 mark, and Indiana, Minnesota, and North Carolina each reported more than 3,000 cases. It is no accident that this totally preventable wastage of life and health coincides with the storm centers of the anti-vaccinationists. Even when due allowance has been made for the probably more accurate reporting of disease in this country, there still is a depressing contrast between showing in our land of vaunted health and education and that of many of the countries whose achievements in those respects we are inclined to decry.

MONROE COUNTY, Pennsylvania, of which Stroudsburg is the county seat, has achieved a record for belated up-to-date-ness which other counties will have to work hard to beat.

A few dry figures will make the later facts all the more rare and juicy. Monroe county has a total area of 623 square miles, or something more than 398,000 acres. Much of this land is mountainous and not well suited to agriculture; but the value in the market is not, thereby, decreased, for within recent decades these mountain areas have been much in demand for summer resort purposes.

The population of the county in 1920 was 24,295, of whom 23,092, or 95 per cent, were native born whites. Of this total, some 17 (according to current unofficial figures) are locally classed as "paupers" and have been cared for by the county at public expense.

Until this summer, these "paupers" have been cared for by contracting them out to families. But within the last two months all this has been changed. The county has just dedicated its new $260,000 "poor farm." A new building, locally reputed to have cost well up to $200,000 is now the pride of the county. This building is finished in the sumptuous style of the summer hotels of the region, and it is equipped with all the conveniences that make the vacation period in the Poconos so restful. It has accommodations for one hundred and fifty inmates.

To be sure, as has been stated, the county has, at present, but seventeen recognized "paupers." But—the future is a long time. It has hopes.

EXPOSING farmers, labor unionists and college students to each other, and all to international scholarship, has been the interesting function of the Rocky Mountain Farmer-Labor Summer School, which held its third annual eight-day session in Idaho Springs, Colorado, this summer. The farmers began by accusing labor of responsibility for the high cost of living on account of the wage level. They were instantly given an informal course of instruction on the trend of rents, the shortage of housing, the conditions of equipment, and the like. The farmers, in their turn, were accused of profiteering in foodstuffs, but when the group got through figuring the farmer's actual wages after deducting overhead costs, the labor group stood unanimously ready to admit the farmer into the fraternity of the workers. They began slowly to see that both groups were in the grip of economic forces and agreed that in the cooperative field they must work together.

Not all the contacts were friendly, however. The labor group followed the farmers' appeal for aid in the matter of taxation with an appeal for the farmers' support of the child labor amendment. In this they were not entirely successful.

Among the 114 students enrolled for this summer's session, besides these basic groups there were a preacher, a mining engineer, a professor of engineering, a teacher, two newspaper reporters, and the mayor and superintendent of schools of the town where the assembly was held. The community looked on the school as a sort of chautauqua and two to three hundred visitors came to listen in the evenings. Leaders like A. P. R. Drucker of Colorado College—an illiterate sweatshop worker at twenty-five; Albert Dakan, a lawyer who has fought many of the farmer's battles; Illtyd David, a Welshman from Cambridge and Dublin who lectured on European social and industrial conditions; S. A. Lough, psychologist, formerly president of Baker University, Kansas; Florence Kelley and others gave distinction to the courses of study. But discussion was much in order, and no speaker was permitted to use more than half of a class period. Economics, economic history and the cooperative movement headed the curriculum, with English, industrial and agricultural legislation, public speaking, agricultural economics, and a composite discussion group for the consideration of organization problems to round it out.

The experiment owes its success in the main to the vitality of educational activities among both labor and farm groups during the winter. Colorado Springs has a night school, meeting for twenty weeks, which enrolls over two hundred. A school with nearly a hundred students was opened last year in Pueblo. In Greeley classes taught by members of the normal school faculty attracted both farmers and wage-workers. In Wyoming classes are being held in mining centers and in some of the larger cities. The summer school owes its origin directly to the Denver Labor College, itself an outgrowth of the Denver Open Forum, which in turn grew out of the vigorous social program of Grace Community Church. Its pastor, G. S. Lackland, has built in seven years a notable center of civic intelligence.

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INDUSTRY

Race and the Job

THERE is a good deal of justification for the statement frequently heard that America knows no classes. In the sense of a rigid demarcation that acts as a barrier between manual and mental workers or capitalists and wage-earners, a class division does not exist among native American whites. Where we do see a distinction that has hardened into the consciousness of class, it is almost always associated with national or racial differences. Occasionally a visitor to one of our industrial cities in the East inquires whether *all* the work is done by foreigners; and I have come across visitors to the South who exaggerated their impressions to the extent of saying that "no southern white ever works at all."

More common, throughout the country, are lines invisible so that it is not easy to find out on what ethnological principles, if any, the workers are recruited into or barred from different employments—even though it may not be difficult to ascertain the existence of discriminations on such grounds. Now and again there is a disturbance of normal conditions, as in the case of a strike when the line of eligibility to jobs may shift one way or the other, or in the case of a sudden large increase in the size of a group which attracts notice to it. In such events we often learn for the first time of preferences or discriminations that may have existed for years, and of a strange mixture of experiences and prejudices behind them.

It is nearly always some adverse circumstance with its concomitant outburst of temper—the introduction of blacklegs, the appearance on the streets of numbers of people who look different or speak a different language, a new competition for homes already scarce, a disregard of long-established customs and habits of behavior—that makes the community first aware of a problem in group relationships. Slumbering prejudices are fanned into flame when suddenly a group of "foreigners" threatens a wage standard, or when a "shipment" of southern Negroes arrives at the order of an industrial concern and is seen as the forerunner of a whole avalanche of cheap labor and socially undesirable neighbors. But the larger cause of friction between different national and racial groups, where it exists, does not usually lie in such dramatic happenings that focus attention, but rather in conditions which may be observed all the time. Practically every worker, in and around his job, and every employer in the daily routine of management, absorbs impressions and rationalizes experiences in such a way as to form a pattern of attitudes; and if differences in language, unpleasant smells, habits, or opinions enter into these impressions and experiences, a philosophy of race is evolved which may either find expression in formal statements of policy or remain, less conscious, a determining influence upon practices.

From the contrast of these attitudes—not only as between employers and workers but also as between different types of workers—new conflicts develop, and the divergence of view-point itself may give rise to new policies of industrial management or of labor organization. Again, racial or cultural attitudes cut across economic interests, and not infrequently we may see the members of a given group depart widely from the generally accepted traditions. For example, the most tolerant and liberal policy of an industrial concern not infrequently is contradicted by the actions of plant superintendents or foremen whose personal preferences rather than the deliberate intentions of the firm rule the actual practice in this matter of race distinction. The same is true, of course, also of organized labor. The instructions of Internationals and declarations of brotherly love passed at A.F. of L. conventions may be, and often are, totally disregarded in local situations. In short, the prevailing temper of the community rather than the reasoned interest of either capital or labor often govern the behavior of both toward the potential wage-earner of dark skin or foreign speech. Let me give an example of each:

In one department of a middle western plant, white and colored girls are employed side by side. There are eighteen white girls and nine colored ones. Some time ago, when trade was brisk, there were twenty colored girls. When the rush season was over, some of the colored girls were discharged and others, including the colored supervisor of the department, were transferred. Asked why only colored girls were eliminated from the shop while all the white ones remained, it was explained that the firm desired to maintain a due proportion of white workers as a concession to the prejudices of some of the customers.

A report from a city in Ohio states that the growth of the Ku Klux Klan is dividing the workers. Segregation has been applied to processes upon which previously native American and foreign-born workers of several nationalities had been jointly engaged, with the result that organization, especially of the unskilled workers, has been practically wiped out. In illustration of this condition a worker employed in one of these plants writes: "The foreman came and placed me at another job that was identical with the one at which I had been working. He made no explanation other than to say that he thought I would like this work better. After working for a while, my curiosity got the better of me and I inquired why I had been moved. The supervisor replied, 'We are going to keep the white men on this side of the shop and the Hunkies on the other'."

To understand all these conflicting programs and practices, with the larger economic and cultural spheres of interest back of them, is a task upon which as yet very little work has been done. It requires not so much large generalizations or a consensus of a kind that might be obtained over a wide area by means of questionnaires as an intimate view of specific situations, with all the pertinent facts as regards conditions and motivations, such as only local studies and self-analyses on the part of industrial plants or communities can produce. Take, for example, the following letter from

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From a city of mixed industries:

"MORE interested in lying out in the sun than in doing their day's work," was the opinion of Spanish and Portuguese workers expressed by employment managers. One of them said that if these nationalities were mentioned at a meeting of managers, the remark was "sure to get a laugh from the crowd." Nevertheless, investigation among the Spaniards and Portuguese themselves and among community workers revealed that they had no special difficulty in securing employment and, in fact, were making progress in entering employments previously closed to them. It appeared that the derisive attitude of certain employment managers was largely a survival from earlier days when these groups had had difficulty in adapting themselves to the industrial life.

a western trade unionist which is probably typical of similar conditions in many places:

Some years ago [writes a molder] I was working at my trade at a fairly large foundry in a city of Nebraska. The molders, like other crafts, have through long years of experience built up an apprenticeship system which works to the great advantage of those who undertake to learn a trade and want to be real mechanics. So, in this shop with quite a number of molders there were a number of apprentices, most of them Italians.

Now, I for one hold no ill-will or malice toward anyone because of his creed, color, or nationality; and it so happened that the majority of molders in this shop were of the same frame of mind. Therefore, the Italian apprentices were at all times treated as brothers, and when they had finished their time were admitted to the union.

In negotiation with the firm for an increase in wages, the molders were compelled to strike. After being out a week—it being the custom to call the apprentices out later—the molders called upon the apprentices to lay down their tools. They refused.

Here the members of a craft had for years been training these men of a foreign nationality, as was their duty; these had been serving terms varying from six months to almost four years when the strike was called, yet refused to identify themselves with their fellow-workers and acted as a closed national group. Thus quite an ill-feeling grew up, and when about a year later I left the city, there had developed a positive case of prejudice against Italians.

At once a number of questions arise which lead from the immediate occasion of the friction—the difference in the understanding of native and Italian workers of the implications of their loyalty to the union and to the employer—into underlying conditions during normal times:

Had the Italian workers really been treated as "brothers" by their native fellow-workers, or was there always a sense of difference in the attitude toward them?

Had the Italians become insufficiently adjusted to American industrial conditions to understand the seriousness of their obligation toward their fellow-workers?

Had the employers, perhaps, gone out of their way to win the loyalty of the foreign-born workers in order to use them later as a weapon in combats with organized labor?

Was the occurrence really the cause of ill-feeling against the Italians in the community, or was it merely a rationalized explanation for a feeling that had arisen independently of this occasion?

Is it in the interests of employers that such a feeling should exist in the community?

What can the union do to prevent the spread of anti-foreign prejudices and ensure the loyalty of foreign-born workers to the union in the future?

Obviously, to answer such questions as these a full understanding of the local situation is required, and not merely generalities either in the shape of pious sentiments or of statements which, though true on the whole, may not be true of this locality. On the contrary, the correct interpretation of a specific experience of this kind and, better still, a critical survey of the general situation from which it arises and an appraisal of measures taken to deal with it will be of benefit to everyone who has to face similar occurrences and conditions. Readers of The Survey need not be convinced of the value, in the social-educational process, of both local studies and object lessons in experimental action. For this reason, the Commission on Race Relations of The Inquiry, which is now promoting study along these lines, hopes that many individuals and groups, throughout the country, will cooperate in that venture by undertaking a local project of inquiry—without waiting for a special occasion of industrial strife.

Several such projects are, in fact, under way. In one instance, a group of students, working during the summer months at a famous plant, have made themselves responsible for a cooperative study of the racial policies of that plant as they work out in practice. A municipal university has appropriated a small sum to enable a teacher of sociology, with the aid of students and of a committee of social workers, to make such a study of a group of industries in the community—a study with which since some of the most important employers

From a steel town:

FOREIGNERS will work on the job with Negroes; Americans won't. But the foreigners in general do not like to live in the same neighborhoods with Negroes. . . . The attitude toward the Negro in the mill is reflected in the town, though it takes on a more serious emphasis. There is discrimination by city officials and in construction work. The superintendent of schools says: "Of course, there never could be a Negro teacher here." And, the stand having once been taken in the town, the prejudice is infinitely more difficult to overcome than in the mill which started it and which, should the occasion arise, will unquestionably give added opportunities to Negroes whether white workers like it or not.

From a textile center:

THE foremen have different degrees of power in the mills. In some they definitely determine the employment policy; in others they carry out a rigid plant policy. Native American foremen, as a rule, are willing to employ all groups: Scottish foremen are clannish and give preference to Scots; Hollanders have a majority of Dutch wherever they can because of their religious and community attitude; Italians employ largely Italians because they can understand their orders; Jewish foremen will hire workers of any nationality. . . . In practically every case, the debarment of Negroes from mill employment is taken for granted.

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as well as labor leaders have associated themselves. In a small city specializing in one industry, our commission has taken advantage of the fact that an industrial investigator was working in one of the mills to gain first-hand experience and secured an intimate picture of the attitudes toward each other of the workers of different races and nationalities, as well as an account of the various policies followed by the employers. In a community of mixed industries the interest in the project proved so great that within a very few weeks a competent investigator was able to unravel some of the most perplexing racial attitudes in the local industries and their causes. In a steel town, a former industrial editor of The Survey, with the cooperation of everybody from the head office in Pittsburgh down to the last straw boss, secured the first clear picture of the total impact of the newer race policies. Several individual plants are under investigation by, or with the cooperative participation of, the firms themselves to get at the psychology of the workers and at the effectiveness of the management policies in this matter of racial attitudes.

From a large northern industrial city:

NATIVE Americans, who make up only a little over four-tenths of the employes of the plants studied, provide over five-sixths of all the office workers and very nearly six-sevenths of all the foremen. The Poles, who make up three-tenths of all the workers in these plants, furnish only eight of the 647 office workers and about one in eighteen of all the foremen. The Italians show a similar tendency. The Negroes provide about one-fifteenth of the employes of these plants but do not furnish a single foreman or office worker.

In so far as the commission has itself taken a hand in these studies, it has done so hesitatingly and with the sole purpose of priming the pump. The real job can only be done by interested groups, mainly for their own reasons and purposes and only incidentally as contributions to a national fund of information. The small samples from reports on these two pages will give a glimmer of the significant and, in some cases, rather startling information that is gradually flowing from such local inquiries. Every one of the reports received so far—and other evidence already available in published form—suggests that there is here a fund of human experience that has not got of itself into the consciousness of the community.

Obviously, these little shreds from the notebooks of investigators give no adequate picture of the variety of that experience or of the different ways in which similar attitudes, whether formulated in programs or filtered into habitual behavior, work out according to the variety of psychological backgrounds. Occasionally there are bits of humor, as when an official of a ministers' association, after vociferously deploring the race prejudices of certain local trade unions, had to admit that his own union did not include the local Negro ministers.

What is most needed today is a more realistic knowledge of the psychology of the workers themselves. Often employers discriminate against certain groups in the belief that a majority of their employes demand such tactics, that doing otherwise would lead to trouble; and all too often these impressions of the office as to the feeling in the shops are totally erroneous. I am reminded of a case, during the labor shortage of the war, when some hundreds of Negroes were brought into a plant: The management hurriedly built screens across the dining hall so that white workers would not have to sit down with the colored ones. On the second or third day, these screens were completely broken down because the white workers were far more concerned in a rapid service than in asserting their racial superiority.

From a plant employing colored women, recently come from the South:

THE colored women rarely express real dissatisfaction. They speak of the prejudices against them, their low wages and the needs of their families, the hardness of their lot—but they show no rebellion. When I asked if she would not prefer to work in a different department where piece rates are higher, one woman replied, "In God's good time." Another woman, commenting on the fact that they had only had three days' work the previous week, remarked: "It doesn't seem fair—but the Good Man knows best." The women were quick to rebuke criticism, and one quoted the twenty-third Psalm. It seemed wrong to them to be "judging." They were confident they would receive their reward.

But to get at the root of the prevailing race attitudes among industrial workers implies a knowledge of them also as citizens and neighbors, as parents and churchmen, as members of their own national group and as individuals with different tastes and ideas—which, again, are constantly being modified by new impressions and experiences. In short, arising out of a general concern with the fundamentals of American race attitudes as a piece of specialization within a more limited field, this study inevitably leads us back again into the need for a better comprehension of the subject of race attitudes and race conflict as a whole. It is, therefore, a project that should appeal not only to those with direct interests in industrial management but also the much larger number of people who are looking for a way out of what looms up more and more as, perhaps, the largest of American domestic problems.

BRUNO LASKER

From an automobile plant:

A FOREIGNER of dark skin had been stationed in the yard to keep men from riding on the end of the switch train. A "white" man, called by him to task for such a violation, turned in his badge, saying he would not take orders from a Negro. The superintendent succeeded in convincing him that any man placed by the company in authority must be respected. Soon after, the foreigner came into the office and wished to quit, because "Americans would not take orders" from him. Here were two men ready to throw up their jobs because of mistaken generalizations!

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EDUCATION

Making the Social Sciences Sociable

WHEN an educator develops a sense of humor, he is apt to lose caste among his fellow workers. That is probably because education is regarded as very serious business, being heavily freighted with responsibility as the thing that is going to save the world.

But in spite of the curse which is upon him because he learned to laugh, there are many people who find comfort in the formula of Stephen Leacock for founding a university. "If I were founding a university—and I say it with all the seriousness of which I am capable," he writes, "I would found first a smoking room; then when I had a little more money in hand I would found a dormitory; then, after that, or more probably with it, a decent reading room and a library. After that, if I still had money over which I couldn't use, I would hire a professor and get some text books."

STEPHEN LEACOCK would like the youthful Robert Brookings Graduate School of Economics and Government in Washington, D. C. He would even excuse the elaborateness of the name in his joy over the smoking room with its deep-cushioned arm-chairs which invite mental sluggards to peaceful sleep and those who have something to say to stay all night. He would find in the rooms of a fine old Washington city home of the spacious period in American architecture a dormitory to please the most exacting taste for comfort. He would find books—few sets of books—to appeal to his every mood and fancy, and if he looked hard, and could distinguish them from the students, he would find some professors.

And, he would find an idea. The idea is that the study of the social sciences of economics and government, to enjoy more successful development, must be more sociable. That they should be scientific has gradually come to be accepted, at least among workers in the craft, but the suggestion of sociability introduces a new element. The possible exploitation of that element is at least one justification of the Brookings School, a justification which can but be explained in terms of the recent intellectual experience of the founder.

Mr. Brookings, as the story goes, accepted the prices of goods as he found them for many years, and liked them so well that he made a few millions of dollars in the manufacturing business. Then, during the war, he tried to fix a lot of prices, as chairman of President Wilson's price fixing committee, and his real worries were begun. No longer an opportunistic member of a more or less self-regulating economic organization, he found himself in the role of a chief engineer, charged with responsibility for regulating the machinery of prices.

To do its job well, the price fixing committee discovered that it would have to understand the details of the economic order in which it was to exercise a most important control, and the country was scoured for information. There was plenty of it. Tons of books and pamphlets giving the results of economic studies were available, but in the mass there was one damning weakness. The studies were in no way correlated. Out of university library nooks had come masterful treatises about isolated problems, but virtually none of the problems were put in a setting to be of immediate use to a committee faced with an emergency and not an academic society. Many of the economists had done their work without reference to the lawyers; and most of the political scientists had neglected the psychologist's contribution to an understanding of their subject. In their own restricted spheres the research experts had done competent work, but they had not been sociable. Their books, when they cut across fields apart from their own, proceeded on the philosophy of "as if" while Mr. Brookings and his committee were unfortunately held within the limits of "as is."

When he retired at the conclusion of his work with the price-fixing committee, which had been made doubly difficult by the lack of reliable guide posts, Mr. Brookings refused to give a peaceful benediction to the complex economic order which had first favored and then baffled him. He contended that some progress could be made toward understanding it through cooperative endeavor, and proceeded to found and arrange the financing of the Institute of Economics which, with an annual budget of approximately $200,000, is seeking to make available sound information about, and impartial analyses of a number of major economic problems of current importance.

But beyond the relatively simple question of adding another institute to the imposing array of such establishments, there was a more formidable problem. Why did the Institute seem to be necessary? One reason appeared to be that the best fruits of social science research were being lost because they were so generally indigestible. It was not that the social scientists, for the most part university workers, were not doing important work—although some of the titles for Ph.D. theses do seem a bit trivial to one unacquainted with the metaphysical aspects of the science—but when their work was not so specialized as to be of little value for immediate practical application, it was generally reported in an academic phraseology requiring extensive translation before being ready for general consumption.

So the Institute of Economics—as was the case of the Institute for Government Research, founded by Mr. Brookings in 1916—had as a definite part of its task the conversion of writings concerned with social science into a species of literature which might be understood, and on occasion even enjoyed, by persons who had not mastered a highly artificial and specialized terminology.

But how long would these establishments be needed to mediate between the cloistered social scientists and an interested but confused public? No body politic has yet been

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known to run out of social problems, so there did not seem to be an end in sight in that direction. But if the social scientists themselves could be made a little less mechanical and specialized, and a little more conscious of the fact that the social sciences involve sociability as well as science, the Institutes might eventually become less necessary. At any rate it seemed a good idea to do a little experimenting in that direction, and the Brookings School is the result.

IT is an odd sort of school. In the first place, all of the students are very comfortably quartered and fairly well fed. That is a novelty for higher education in the year of our Lord 1925, when the customary procedure is to have two students for every decent living accommodation; and it is even more rare for graduate students who are supposed to remain true to the medieval tradition of poverty and paleness.

But the school has an even more pronounced idiosyncrasy which, if one has regard for the academic proprieties, is almost indecent. There is no registrar. The equipment of stationery does not include a single set of pink and blue cards, and one of the causes of homesickness when the students arrive in the fall may well be that they do not have to stand in line for several hours to be told ultimately that they are in the wrong line.

In fact, when the students—about thirty-five of them—arrive, they are woefully neglected if standard academic procedure is any guide. Instead of being "oriented" they are fed, and then they are allowed to discover two rooms full of books. And what a queer lot of books for a graduate school of economics and government! Anatole France hobnobbing with Bernard Shaw and Ring Lardner poking fun at John Stuart Mill and Adam Smith for taking things so seriously.

Then, in the course of time, the students discover each other, and the academic year is under way. Flaming radicals endeavor to apply the life giving heat of their brand of social and economic truth to what they discover, to their dismay, to be asbestos-minded conservatives; young men and women who know that the true road to salvation lies in the direction of a solution of the labor problem are testily advised by others that the coming of order out of chaos depends upon the psychologists.

The first impression of the students is that they have been asked to join a club instead of a graduate school. The second is that they have been tricked into joining a very inferior company of intellectual pugilists because they can find no one to agree with them. But there is no escape.

This forced exposure to other points of view on economic and political problems is one of the principal features of the Brookings School. It may be *the* principal feature. Each student comes with a different background, a different training, a different set of interests in the large general field being covered, a different set of convictions and prejudices, and a typically youthful conceit. When he arrives he knows he is right about almost everything. After he arrives he has to be both right and sociable, and unless the school errs and selects a set of morons, there are sooner or later going to be confessions of error, and that, at least, is a part of education.

In selecting students, apart from evidences of respectable scholastic attainment, and the probability of a sustained interest in the social sciences as a device for improving social adjustments, an attempt is made to weigh personal qualities and adaptability to the moulding force of ideas. While no commitments are required as to what is the "true religion" in the social sciences, and the clash of views—if backed by more than a family tradition—is encouraged, it is expected and in fact rather insistently urged that a person be willing to shift position to face the facts. While such a system, which is fortified by demanding evidences of ability to write intelligibly, is far from fool-proof, it has the virtue of considering prospective students as human beings, as well as scholastic machines.

If the school does nothing more than make thirty embryo social scientists live together for a year, its service will be important and distinctive, but there is more than that. There are some classes, and they are peculiar too. Instead of note books, ash trays are distributed. There may be a professor or there may not, but there won't be a lecture. Walton Hale Hamilton, the academic head of the school, gives a course which he calls Labor Problems. Now any normal human being knows that a course in labor problems has to do with work, and wages, and unions, and strikes, but Mr. Hamilton doesn't seem to know that. One dropping into his class is apt to hear one of the students discussing the boyhood life of Chief Justice William Howard Taft, or the psychological basis for the change in styles.

Mr. Hamilton, besides insisting on knowing the why and wherefore of price levels and wage levels, insists on endeavoring to ascertain what these sets of economic values hold of promise for the creation of new values in literature, drama, art. He would agree, in fact insist, that we must do our human best to describe all of the workings of our economic machine, but that that is just a starting point, beyond which lies a whole field of implications which must be explored before we can intelligently appraise the system.

Such a point of view is reflected in all of the courses, which, in outline, resemble those of most any university graduate departments of economics and political science. Government, the study of which is in charge of Walter Shepard, is treated not only from the mechanical viewpoint of understanding some interesting machinery, but of trying to comprehend the relation of that machinery to the people who run and are run by it. "Cultural" is an unfortunately snobbish and self-satisfied word, but it describes as well as any other the approach to the problems being studied, as opposed to economics and political science trade school procedure.

The informality which characterizes the curricular activities of the school has already had some interesting consequences. For example, John A. Hobson, the distinguished British economist, was forced to abandon a perfectly good set of formal lectures and submit his dignified person to catechism by a group of young upstarts who contended that they could ultimately come to know his lectures from books, but that they would only have one rare opportunity to know him.

APART from the regular courses which, though informal, still depend upon the spotlight performance of a social science prima donna, there are those organized by students who, in sociably exercising their prejudices, find themselves disagreed on subjects about which they do not know much of anything, and about which there is at hand no well organized body of information. One of these enterprises grew out of a debate about the merits of justices of the Supreme Court of the United States as economists.

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On the idea of advanced social science education as a cooperative venture, instead of individual absorption from a common professorial fount of wisdom, the Brookings School is staking much. This year it is adding to the common store of knowledge—and prejudice—through the medium of students from a number of foreign countries. But the cooperative movement here, as in other fields of endeavor, has one weakness, particularly when viewed from the standpoint of the printing trade. It tends to a restriction of output. For those persons who welcome large-scale production in our intellectual factories, the Brookings School is bound to be disappointing, for it is very difficult to write a magnum opus on economics or politics when one is continually forced to realize that there are many valid approaches to the same problem. Administrative steps to meet this contingency have already been taken, and there has been a break with age long tenets of academic respectability. Students wishing the Ph. D. are permitted to write a certain number of essays on phases of subjects which they have a chance of understanding, instead of voluminous theses on subjects about which they can read extensively. In the research activity involved in such studies the emphasis is in the direction of sociability, and the students are encouraged to investigate by first-hand contact how governmental and economic establishments, so many of which are represented in Washington, really work instead of consulting reference books about them. The attempt is to make use of a research laboratory as well as a research library.

This method has promise of developing interesting results eventually, but certainly no startling ones in the immediate future. Much of the procedure tends to negative what, if one had stayed by himself and thought about it, would be a nice large generalization; but if such a process does ultimately lead to some slight conclusions, they should have value for having been born of careful observation and tested by cooperative criticism. Whether research involving more than the normal amount of first-hand investigation and joint enterprise will have distinctive merit can be partially tested shortly through the medium of a quarterly journal to be published by the school.

BUT the research activity of the school, important as it is, is not the outstanding contribution of the school to a progressive theory of higher education in the social sciences.

The notable thing the school is doing is making it comfortably possible and then necessary to realize that, after all, when one deals with economics and government, one is dealing with the activities of human beings, and that human beings are the queerest things on this earth. Continued association with any body of thirty people drives that fact home, but continued association with thirty graduate students and potential professors makes it an undying reality which should temper and therefore purify any later generalizations about that mysterious body which is known as the human race, and which is the subject matter of the social sciences.

Although these academic standards depart from convention, they yield nothing in rigor to those which have been hallowed by age in the social science schools of the country. In fact, the demand made upon a student that he be at the same time a competent research workman and a congenial human being with an aesthetic and cultural interest in the art of life is a striking educational challenge. The few graduates thus far have been divided about equally between teachers and social science research workers.

The Brookings School may prove a dismal failure. There is no room in it for smugness. It is not the counterpart of anything that has developed a formula for success. It may fail because graduate students, as a class, are such freaks that there is just no pleasant sociability in them. It may be, again, that the delightful temptations to sociability at the school may dull the urge to research. Or it may happen that persons who represent most shades of radical, liberal, and conservative opinion on social problems will get their intellectual convictions mixed up with personalities, and find that there is too much personal jar in trying to live together. That would be an awful indictment of higher education, but it might happen, because no one knows just what will happen. And the experience of the school thus far has been too diverse to warrant even any tentative conclusions. If the optimism which prompted the generously endowed experiment of the Brookings School is well founded, it will suggest one way in which the study of the social sciences may be made more sociable, and consequently more generally useful.

DEXTER M. KEEZER

Education Week Again

A YEAR ago the federal Bureau of Education saw red, and with the help of the American Legion promulgated a program for Education Week which seemed to leave ideas—certainly pacific ideas—such short shrift that the American Civil Liberties Union was constrained to protest and the Young Women's Christian Association to refuse its cooperation (see The Survey, Nov. 15, Dec. 1, 1924). There is, by contrast, a studied urbanity about the program for 1925, devoting one day to the constitution, one to the flag, and one each to the teacher, the forests, "progressive" education, the community and health, and "God and country." The reds have ceased to trouble, and the only reference either to war or peace is in the declaration, under the heading of patriotism, that "our national honor must be preserved from unjust attack."

The American Federation of Teachers, through its secretary, F. G. Stecker, finds the new program good "as far as it goes," but considers that the opportunity offered by a week of popular consideration of the schools calls for a much rounder body of constructive thought. It has therefore offered its own program, devoting a day each to American Traditions of Freedom, National Progress in Times of Peace, American Institutions Promoting Social Progress, The Extension of Political Intelligence Among the People of the Nation, Social Justice for All, Public Heath, and Moral Development. Innocent as are these titles, one wonders if the American Legion or the Bureau of Education itself would subscribe to such truly disturbing slogans as "No progressive government without ideas; no progressive ideas without freedom," or would interest itself in "the duty of the teachers and of all other citizens to encourage the discussion of political and social questions, subject to the guidance of sound educational principles." "There shall be no exploitation in America" seems at least as promising a slogan for American consideration between November 16 and 22, as "The constitution is the bulwark of democracy and opportunity."

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COMMUNITIES

Planned for 1960—and After

WHILE much has been written and little done, on this side the water, about the garden suburb (which is not, of course, the same thing as a garden city) a town-planning project at the southwest corner of the Los Angeles Metropolitan District has been quietly developing many of the European garden suburb ideas. Palos Verdes, near Los Angeles Harbor (but not inisde the city limits), is in many ways assured of a better environment—more open space, better recreation areas, more careful control of architecture—than can be found elsewhere in the United States except to a limited degree in such established districts as Roland Park, Baltimore; Forest Hills, Long Island; or St. Francis Wood, San Francisco.

In size and location the site is exceptional. A ranch of sixteen thousand acres (twenty-five square miles) was acquired in 1913 by the Frank Vanderlip Syndicate, which thus became the sixth owner in succession from the original grant of the King of Spain. It lies on a peninsula of rolling hills which jut out into the Pacific toward Catalina and the Channel Islands, and boasts more than twelve miles of seacoast, bays and inlets.

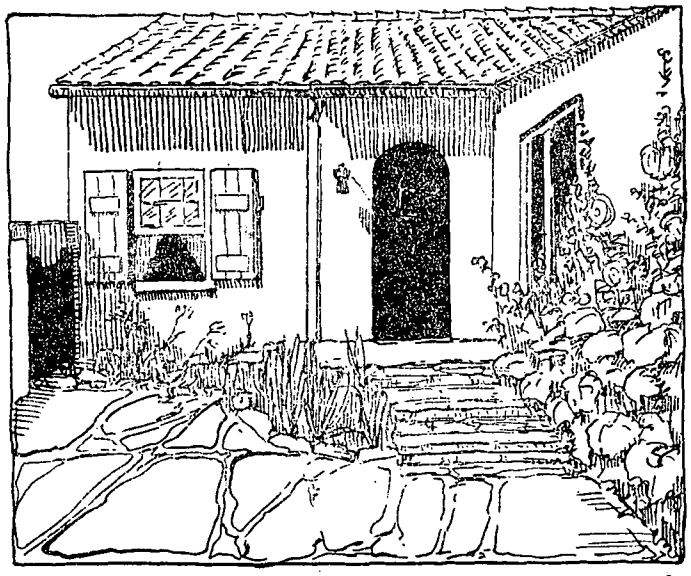
The first part of the tract to be developed is the 3,200 acres that lie along its western and northern fringe, shown in the accompanying map. This initial development is financed in comparatively small amounts, through the Palos Verdes Trust, by some five thousand participating owners, about two thousand of whom have bought homesites at reduced rates as underwriters. Further areas, it is expected, will be developed along similar lines in conformity with the general town plan for the whole area prepared by Olmsted Brothers and Charles H. Cheney—a plan which takes full account of the character of the land and makes free use of its sweeping contours.

The plan has been permanently and legally established by the filing of subdivision maps and restrictions which fix not only the street system, with its carefully thought-out scheme of major traffic routes, parkways and contoured roads, but also zoning and complete protective restrictions for practically the whole of the first 3,200 acres.

Unlike the English garden cities, Palos Verdes is not planned as a self-contained industrial and residential unit. It was conceived primarily as a suburban residential district for a metropolitan area which now contains perhaps two million people. The zoning done by restriction therefore reserves over 90 per cent of all lots for single-family dwellings. Local business centers consist of a few lots each, surrounded by a small group of apartment and house-court sites; necessary stores, garages, service stations and the like are being located in a few compact blocks. The number and kind of these buildings is strictly limited, and the community controls their architectural design.

All building, in fact, is safeguarded in the interest of the amenities by a restriction, governing the use of all property, which sets up a permanent art jury to pass on building plans. This board, legally constituted and including a representative of the lot owners, must approve not only proposed buildings, but fences, walls, plantings and other improvements before they can lawfully be constructed. An endowment of $300,000 has been set up to finance the expenses of this jury so that owners can be advised without cost to them. Definite standards of achitecture have been established; in most parts of the Estates these require the use of a type appropriate to the southern California climate—its predominant features being walls of light-hued plaster and tile roofs. No billboards or general advertising signs can be erected anywhere in the Estates: the few necessary store and business signs are subject to review by the art jury.

By planning so large a tract at a time, it was possible not only to group residence and shopping districts into convenient community units—the store points being approximately two miles apart—but to make exceptional provision for open spaces and recreation. Every mile across the property about ten acres has been set aside for an elementary school-playground-park unit; every two miles twenty-five acres for a junior high school and children's ball fields; every three miles forty acres for a senior high school and community playground. A 213-acre park and golf course, with grass greens, fairways and club house, complete, has been deeded to the community for permanent recreation use; together with four miles of ocean shore park and about two hundred acres of additional parks and gulches, linking up with paths, roads and bridle-trails all parts of the property.



Indigenous architectural forms have been used consistently throughout Palos Verdes

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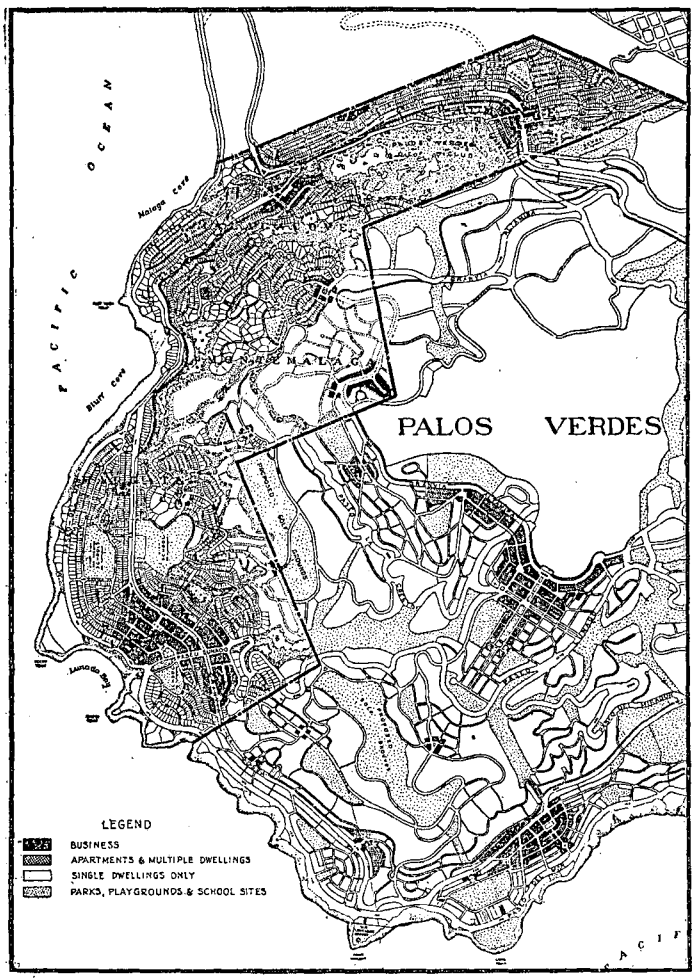

The western section of Palos Verdes Estates, including the 3200-acre tract now being developed. Interesting features of the plan here shown are the spacing of neighborhood communities, the grouping of residence zones of varying intensity around shopping and administrative centers, and the liberal provision of recreation grounds and other open spaces which cushion the individual communities and permanently prevent their merging in unplanned and congested masses such as so often result when an expanding city rides rough-shod over suburban areas

Title to these rests in the Palos Verdes Homes Association, which was incorporated as a non-stock, non-profit community organization to bridge the gap that usually occurs in a new section between the time of its first settlement and the incorporation of a city government—a gap which is full of embarrassing possibilities for those whose interest lies in prompt and continuous operation of community service. This association, in which every building site has one vote, has power to interpret and enforce all the restrictions attached to the property and to collect an annual maintenance tax which is created in the restrictions by a recurrent annual lien. This tax, which must never exceed the city tax rate within the Los Angeles municipal limits, is used for the upkeep of recreation sites, street planting, parks, and the like, and for the general benefit of all property owners. The association already holds title to more than six hundred and fifty acres of public land. It should act as a permanent nucleus for common activities of all sorts.

The restrictions which govern the use of property are in force until 1960 and are to be automatically extended for twenty-year periods thereafter unless modified by a majority vote of those who then own property. They may, however, be modified locally as to zoning, set-backs and the like if the proposed changes have the approval of the community association and of the owners of two-thirds of the area within three hundred feet of the site in question.

Construction began in Palos Verdes in 1923. During the past two years nearly three million dollars has been spent on roads, water mains, gas and telephone service. Enough water has been developed to take care of thirty thousand people and more is available. The first arcaded business building in Malaga Cove Plaza was recently completed and occupied. More than four hundred thousand dollars of new building permits were issued by the Community Association between November 1, 1924, and August 15, 1925. The ideals of the garden suburb, elaborately pre-planned, are being carried out; Palos Verdes is building for permanency.

Boys in Three Towns

1. Five Men in Bay View

OUT beyond Butchertown in San Francisco is a section of the city which a few years ago gave the police department one reason for being. Every month there would be fifty complaints or so filed at the district police station and another dozen with the chief of police at the Hall of Justice. The boys of the district would abduct a sheep or have a rock fight with no consideration at all for the owner of either sheep or windows.

There were five men living in the district: machinists, steamfitters and so on. They were Americans, some of them native sons, but their names are suggestive. They are H. T. Martin, J. H. Burns, H. C. Thomas, C. R. Scheflin and F. W. Zimmerman. You would not call them reformers, and they would probably object if you did.

These five men, backed by the San Francisco Community Service Recreation League—an outgrowth of war work—got together six years ago to see what could be done about the boys. Now the chief of police has forgotten there are any boys in that neighborhood, and the captain at the district station assigns his milder-mannered policemen to the neighborhood. "It has changed from the most troublesome district in the city to one of the easiest to manage," he says.

The five men naturally take pride in the change, but none of them has gone before the service clubs at luncheons nor filled pulpits in the churches to tell how it was done: perhaps they haven't defined the process even among themselves. Their own explanation is about like this: "If a boy isn't doing right we have him here and talk to him."

How was it done?

A need was felt for a community center in the Bay View district, and several meetings were held there to interest the residents. At first they were uproarious: two burly policemen at the door could not maintain order. But out of the confusion emerged these five men, residents of the district, all workingmen. They became interested. With the Community Service League behind them, they rented temporary quarters in a flat, paying fifteen dollars a month, for a boys' club, and started to raise funds in the neighborhood for a community center.

Some of the boys were drawn into the club. They were given something to do. First a minstrel show was put on

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to raise funds, the district supplying the talent, the Recreation League furnishing the leader. About seven hundred dollars was cleared. Then the five men arranged a street fair which netted about one thousand dollars. People outside the district were not called upon to contribute, and though a few persons sentimentally interested in the neighborhood made gifts, and the city-wide organization was behind the club, it was understood from the first that the district was to look to itself mainly for the support of its own enterprise.

A lot was bought for five hundred dollars, and the money earned by the entertainments went to pay for it and for building materials. A clubhouse was begun by the five men and other volunteers. It isn't a large one, and it has been six years in building, and it isn't quite finished yet. But that is a mere detail. The five men have given—and are still giving—each of them, two nights a week to the direction of the community club. The boys came in for play, and so did the girls and their parents. There are gymnasium classes for boys and girls, classes in folk dancing, music. The membership of the community club has reached 250, of whom 50 are boys.

The members pay dues of twenty-five cents a month. The Community Service Recreation League has general supervision and has supplied a leader and teachers for various classes. Since the establishment of the San Francisco Community Chest, the funds for the extra expenses of the club have come from it. Increasing use has been made of the center: among other things, it has housed a free well-baby clinic maintained by the San Francisco Board of Health.

But the credit for the success of the center goes to the five men. They are not politicians; they are not high-hats. All are married, but only one has children. He is the one who gives his special energies to the Boy Scout troop of fifty members in which his own two boys are enrolled. It was not all easy to do: the scepticism of parents in a district where many have newly come from overseas—the district has a large Maltese colony—had to be overcome. But the men and their neighbors saw a job, and did it.

ARTHUR PRICE

II. The Jamesburg Scouts

THERE are various things one can take home from a reformatory. But from the New Jersey State Home for Boys, at Jamesburg, one can take home honors won in a boy scout troop in "good and regular standing" and recognized by any other scout troop where the boy happens to find himself after his release from the institution.

"Institutional scouting" began with a camp at which eighty boys had their first experience of scout work at Jamesburg in the summer of 1921. Eventually the scouts inside the institution reached a point where affiliation with the regular Boy Scout organization was desirable, and they were welcomed into the fold. Scout headquarters in New York made it possible for the Jamesburg troup to register all scouts ready for examination; they furnished certificates and registration papers for the officers and enrolled them regularly, making it legal for the Jamesburg boys to wear the scout uniform, and to purchase implements, books, flags, and other paraphernalia used by the Boy Scouts of America. That in turn made it possible for the institution's boys to be transferred to outside troups when they left on parole. As a result, the heartiest cooperation now exists between the Jamesburg Boy Scouts and the other troops of the state.

Six of the eleven companies of the Jamesburg Home are now engaged in scouting during their off-hours. Of a total institutional population of slightly more than 500, 325 have been boy scouts since the movement was inaugurated. Scouting has helped materially to bridge the gap between the institution and the community.

DIRK DE YOUNG

III. All Together in Two Rivers

TWO RIVERS is an industrial city some two hundred miles north of Chicago. Out of its total population of eight thousand it has enrolled four hundred boys in a many-sided program. If, as the Boys' Club Federation estimates, approximately 10 per cent of the total population are boys up to eighteen years of age and hence potential boys' club material, Two Rivers has gone about half-way in reaching *all* its boys. In statistical accomplishment other small towns have of course surpassed it; Menominee, Michigan, for instance, has a boys' club of about a thousand members in a total population of ten thousand or less. But the vigorous work in Two Rivers which was reported at the recent annual convention of the Boys' Club Federation has some distinctive features of interest to all small cities.

T. W. Suddard, president of the Boys' Work Association, tells the story. "The manufacturers and business men of Two Rivers," he writes, "had long realized that the social training of its boys, such as it was, was coming from the wrong source."

Finally, in 1923 [Mr. Suddard's story continues] Rotary and Lions Clubs were established in Two Rivers and as has been the practice of these Clubs, the international officers urged the appointment of a committee of boys' work. Such a committee was formed. Somewhat later a visit from Alexander Campbell of the Boys' Club Federation was made to Two Rivers for the purpose of giving some light on the need of boys' work and methods to go by.

The committees appointed by these service clubs to handle boys' work, after some thought on the subject, concluded that it was not the function of an individual club, but must be community-wide. They, therefore, arranged that other civic organizations appoint similar committees to work together. These communities formed a joint committee which began making a study not only of the situation in the town itself, but of work along these lines being done in other communities, making it a point to especially study the failures in this class of work wherever they could be located.

This joint committee studied the matter of boys' work for about a year and probably would still be studying the matter without much in the way of definite performance for the very good reason that the more they studied the more complex the situation seemed to be and the less clear their road lay before them.

However, after about a year of work by the committee, one of the local papers had quite an item in one of its issues asking what this committee was doing and whether or not anything definite had been accomplished. The com-

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mittee then decided that a good way to crystallize public sentiment and get some clear plan of action formulated would be to have Boys' Week in which all of the boy problems would be considered and the public brought face to face with the need of work of this kind.

Boys' Week was put on first in Two Rivers in May, 1924. Over three hundred citizens were numbered in the committees and at the close of the week most of the people in the town were thoroughly aroused to the fact that they had a responsibility to their boys that had never seemed apparent before.

The project having thus run true to form, both in the laggard progress of the first committee and in the use of a community "week" to arouse interest, a Boys' Work Association was formed. The plan was first to engage a "good athlete" as executive, but the association was advised that a broader service would reach the boy more adequately, for "a boy's life is many-sided," and a leader of rounded experience and training was secured. To support the work of this director, a leadership group was at once initiated with regular meetings. "We did not find all of our leaders at first," Mr. Suddard writes. "Time developed some of them and uncovered others. With but one exception our leaders have all made good on their jobs and agree that what they supposed at the start might be a sacrifice turned out to be just the opposite—a great benefit to them."

Then came the question of a building. "We did not feel that it was possible for us to go into an extensive building program, but rather to feel our way before going into major investments. We therefore made arrangements with the schools for the use of their buildings. This gives us three large gymnasiums, a swimming pool, and in addition a large assembly room in one of the central school buildings, as well as a club room in the library building which the Library Board turned over to the Boys' Work Association for a Library Club. This gives us facilities that could not be duplicated for many hundreds of thousands of dollars, located in strategic points throughout the city with no expense for light, heating, janitor service, etc., as the regular maintenance of all these buildings covers all these items.

"Our next question was—'What sort of activities should we put on?' We decided on various boys' organizations that had already proven successful throughout the country such as Boy Scouts, Highlanders, Pioneers, Black Hawks, as well as organizations built to fit local conditions which do not partake of a national character such as our Library Club, our Twin Park Gang and the Order of The Square. In these various activities we have, at the present time, four hundred boys enrolled. Further, additional activities were the Father and Son Banquet, Halloween Party, Boy Government; winter sports such as ice carnivals, skiing, hockey, etc., as well as hiking.

"To a remarkable degree Two Rivers is back of this work. In making the collection of funds to carry on The Boys' Work Association, practically every wage earner was approached; out of a town of eight thousand we had three thousand contributors. The size of the contribution was not half so important, we felt, as the fact that we had contributions from practically everyone.

"The work we have done thus far has led us to certain definite conclusions, which may be of value to others who contemplate a program such as we have started:

1. Boys' work to be successful in the smaller towns must be made community-wide. In other words, if practically the entire community is not back of the project, (and not too far back) the work will not have the success that it should have.

2. Boys' work is not a substitute for the influence of the home, the church and the school, but is an adjunct to these necessary institutions. Therefore, anything that any boys' agency can do to strengthen the hands of these institutions is going to make their work more effective. Furthermore, we feel that any boys' work association should have, as one of its main objectives, the education of the people to their responsibility in the home to their boys and girls.

3. Leadership. The measure of possibilities of the work is the leadership available. Therefore, any project of this kind must have as one of its vital factors or objectives the training for leadership of the men of the community as well as the boys.

4. Mass activities are of vital importance in the small community. One of the few ways a community can visualize the work that is being done is through mass activities. Furthermore, these mass activities reach many boys who could not be reached in any other way. The intensive club work such as that of the Boy Scouts, etc., is fine, but is limited to the leadership available in the community, whereas mass activities can be handled with a greater number of boys per leader and serve as a splendid feeder for the other more intensive club activities.

5. Personalities. There is nothing that is so damaging to work of this kind as the feeling of jealousy and envy that would be engendered if the men operating the Association were constantly in the limelight. This work cannot be done by a few men. It must be a community effort; consequently, no individual or group of individuals should be given undue publicity in connection with the work. Our board has made it a point to submerge all individuals, outside of the director himself, who is, of course, played up strong in all publicity matters.

"A general association, with one trained executive and a progressively trained volunteer group of leaders, using buildings already to hand and throwing every sort of specialized program into the hopper of a year's activity—that is boys' work in Two Rivers. Mr. Suddard is modest in his claims for its success: "We can say that our boys' work has improved the church attendance to a very marked degree, elevated standings in schools and to some extent influenced the home life of the boy. Furthermore, it has brought face to face with the boy problem several hundred men in the community who were never able to think of this thing concretely before."

Uncivil Civics—IV

The Mayor

The Mayor is a man of strife
To whom the masses are devoted;
Few knew him well in private life
Which may be why he was promoted:

This same official, now, is wont
To fill his "jobs" with those who like him;
"Corruption!" sputter those who don't,
Who'd simply take him out and spike him:

Perverse he lives, perverse he'll die:
Our best opinions dont affect him,
Try as our "better class" may try—
And then the People reelect him.

SEYMOUR BARNARD

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

A Romance of Family Case Work

ANNUAL reports of social work agencies have fallen largely into disuse, for perfectly good reasons. Maurice J. Karpf, for six years superintendent of the Jewish Social Service Bureau of Chicago, has created a new kind of report which he calls A Social Audit. It is not an ordinary report; figures, statistics are there, but they constitute only a small part of it. Nor is it so much a recital of what has been accomplished, although a most interesting tale is told of organization and reorganization, of tests, of experiences, of evaluations made from time to time. It is primarily the story of what a very able and trained mind thought of the work as he saw it during those six years; the ideals he tried to realize; the singularly resourceful ways he devised to test results; and especially what he saw for the future. It constitutes almost a text book on organization for social case work—especially for advanced case workers. It is what the old annual reports were supposed to be: a source book of social work—not a source book of meaningless figures and superficial guesses, and of course not a source book of case material, but of method and results, so far as these elusive concepts in social work may be set down in print.

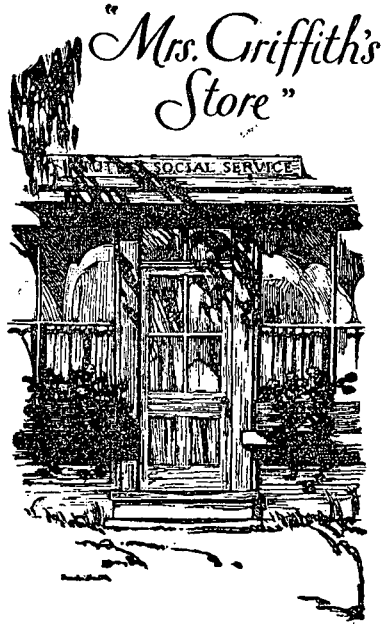
Probably the most courageous feature of this fearless "audit" is its attitude toward relief. We have grown complaisant these last few years on this subject. Everything has conspired to make us so: the socialization of medicine, mother's pensions, industrial compensation, the rising standard of living, the short-sighted nature of much social work publicity, have all driven us to the granting of larger and still larger amounts of relief. Against this tendency, Mr. Karpf's "audit" is a ringing protest. He sees more clearly, probably than a worker among non-Jewish clients could discover, the demoralizing effect of much of our relief giving; a great deal of his work during the six years he was with the Chicago society was to discover and use methods for correcting this evil.

Some of his most interesting experiments have been in substitutes for relief. His story of the self-support department is a new chapter in what is supposed to be a closed book for most social workers: how it has been possible really to set clients up in business. Either the raw material with which he works is more susceptible to training for business than the clients known to community agencies, or his agency has developed a technique most of us do not possess. For if there was one thing we thought we knew about clients it was that, with the rarest exception, they were not business people, and any effort to train them to become such was a waste of time and money. Yet the Chicago Jewish family society has a real story to tell of such experiments. Among families undoubtedly chosen with great care there were some who were put on their feet by a loan of money to set them up a business. So enthusiastic is Mr. Karpf about this method of treatment that he says of it, contrasting it with the work of industrial education in the Self Support Shops: "However, while the shops will care for certain types, and while they offer a tremendously important additional facility for the case worker, self support (through establishment in business) still remains the most constructive and satisfying solution for a good many problems."

Re-training of the handicapped is another escape from relief in which Mr. Karpf has a great deal of confidence. He thinks of handicap as physical, mental and social. The former two are classified into their usual categories; but that provocative one "social" seems to permit of no further classification.

A hint, however, of what he means is given by the use of the workshops as a place where widowed and other mothers may go to sew for a few hours each day and find the association with other wo-

Speaking of Annual Reports



"MRS. GRIFFITH'S STORE? I don't think I know it," the passer-by replied to the little girl who had asked bashfully for directions. "What does she sell?" "I don't know exactly," said the little girl, "but I think she sells helping other people." Prefaced by the cover here reproduced and this episode, the Nutley (New Jersey) Social Service Bureau proceeds to give its annual report in unusually effective narrative form under the subtitle "The Business of Helping Other People." What Mrs. Griffith does, and why she does it, and why her work does not cover ground that belongs rightfully to the public authorities, and how her work makes for real economy by providing skilled service before material relief is needed, appear simply in words designed to be interesting as well as intelligible to the general reader and, incidentally, the prospective Nutley subscriber. During the course of the story the general details of the organization of the bureau appear unobtrusively with the few essential statistics necessary for ballast and perspective.

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men which their home routine or community contacts do not afford.

A real question arises at this point as to whether it is better for a social case working agency to attempt vocational re-education itself, or to use community facilities. Other experience would seem to indicate that the flexibility in educational opportunities, which Mr. Karpf so highly values, could better be secured under auspices of a community wide educational nature, than under a social agency. This would seem to be even more true of a social handicap than of the physical or mental. If Chicago has no educational opportunities for vocational training, then the work of the Jewish agency has the value of a demonstration.

His primary defense, however, against relief giving is case work: case work done by trained, competent and experienced case workers, carrying not too great a load. He discusses the cost of turnover; the sources for training; how an agency might well invest some of its own time in training of workers. He has some eloquent figures on the value in relief money saved by a trained staff. He discusses most interestingly and gravely the reasons why more people are not willing to take the necessary training for social work, or to remain in it after they have entered it, and lists the reasons under (1) inadequate salary; (2) insecurity of tenure; (3) low status, and (4) no provision for old age. All these difficulties act as an increased barrier against the chances for men to enter social work and stay there when once they are in it. One would not need to have a wide acquaintance among social workers during the last ten years to realize how true it is that it is not holding its men.

One aspect of turnover of staff the "audit" does not cover. Its discussion would seem to indicate that turnover is about equally expensive all along the line. In the Minneapolis Family Welfare Association, it was possible to make a study covering two years experience, during which time all district secretaries were replaced. This study showed that in the six months following the change of a district secretary the district spent on the average eight thousand dollars more in relief than normally, or than it did either before the change or after the district secretary got hold of her job. Other observations which could not be stated quantitatively convinced us that the really expensive turnover was in the sub-executive position of district secretary; that with an experienced worker in that position, replacements in the staff, or even in the executive positions, did not show themselves in a poorer quality of case work. We therefore felt that the real change in salary schedules should be those of district secretaries. The workers for the most part were in training. I wonder whether that unpleasant fact will not be true for a long time to come. Their salary is not so bad in view of that fact. But the district secretary, in a districted family society, makes its case work. A number of questions are not touched: such as prerequisite experience; size of district; variation of tasks to fit individual capacities; participation in policy making of the society—all of which have a direct bearing on staff stability.

In discussing the load per visitor, Mr. Karpf says truly that we do not know how many cases a case worker can carry successfully. It is curious that he does not use the device he employed to test the results of case work, namely the problem rather than the case as the unit of measurement —and state the question "we don't know how many social problems a case worker can carry." But whether the unit is the case or the problem, we shall never really know how much or many a case worker can handle until we measure the time it takes workers to do each process in their actual work. It is singular that Mr. Karpf's resourceful mind did not use the daily log to measure these facts. No one log-taking will ever give these, and a continuous log is an impertinence and unnecessary. But a thoroughly well kept log, taken by every member of the staff at intervals sufficiently separated to apply what is learned in each log taking before the following one is tried—a month every two years, for instance—will gather the data on which that very question can be answered. It has been tried by enough societies to demonstrate its value; to show that certain sorts of errors in use of time occur generally among case workers; that there are certain ratios between different processes which can be determined; that the effects of new resources—such as automobiles or dictaphones—can actually be measured; but far more startling, it shows as nothing else can how really little time a case worker can spend in actual contact with a client when she is carrying even so low a load as forty-five cases: less than three hours per month per case.

The unique thing Mr. Karpf did was to devise a method of "control" of case work by the use of the problem rather than the case as his base. Unfortunately, the elaborate study he made with the cooperation of Dr. Young, of the University of Chicago, is not incorporated in this report. In the one table of problems in the boys' department a hint is given of its possibilities. Perhaps any discussion of it as a method might be deferred until the results of the joint study are published. Its significant features are the substitution of the "problem" for the "case" as the unit of study; and the resourceful use of the statistical device of correlation to interpret the problems.

It is refreshing to hear from a somewhat new angle the faith that social case work is a single process, not a congeries of economics, psychology and metaphysics, and that it does have a real content, to be used by social workers on social problems. I know of no agency that has gone so far as Mr. Karpf has reported; social case work for the Legal Aid, with volunteer attorneys assisting the case workers on the technically legal aspects; social case work conceived of as inclusive and broader than psychiatric case work; social workers participating with physicians in determining a medico-social prognosis on cases. This is no more than Professor Wood, of Michigan University, said in his paper at Denver, about social work in general. It is, however, indicative of the broadening recognition of social case work.

Mr. Karpf's unreserved faith in social case work leads him directly into that very interesting field of the family case worker contrasted with the special case worker. In keeping with the pragmatic spirit of his judgments, he gives different answers to different situations. He feels the psychiatric case worker is unnecessary: the family case worker should have all her skill and more. He feels it would be better if the organization of hospital and dispensary made it possible for the family case worker to come into direct touch with the physician, rather than through the medical social worker. As that is not possible in most instances, he suggests a single "liaison person"—family case worker?—to interpret the respective problems of physician and social worker. He thinks domestic science is so special that it is impractical at present to expect family case workers to be skilled in that art, and that work with delinquent and predelinquent boys and girls belongs to a specialist type. The experience of training schools would seem to indicate that

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skill in domestic science is more easily acquired than in psychiatric nomenclature and symptomatology. It seems rather curious that, in such a homogeneous community as the Jewish, work with behavior problem children could not be tied up quite successfully with the family case work. There must be a large incidence of overlapping, as at least one reason for such an inclusion of juvenile work in family case work.

When Miss Richmond was general secretary of the Philadelphia family society she tells us the members of the staff used to make bets with each other on which items in the annual reports would be commented on by other societies, and how long it would be before such comments would appear. Mr. Karpf has given us just such a report. Its wide distribution will ensure wise experimentation in evaluating case work; and it will also give renewed courage to those who have regarded this rising tide of relief with real apprehension.

Furthermore, a social audit raises a very serious question as to whether we have not lost a great deal by the passing of the annual report. That is largely a thing of the past, because it had outlived its usefulness. But now that a new generation of social workers has come on the scene, generally better trained than their predecessors, it is probable that they are trying out all sorts of interesting experiments in evaluation; in case work processes; in training; in interpretation of social case work to the community. Would not the whole field be richer if more of it got into print?

FRANK J. BRUNO

Personal Aims and Methods in Social Case Work

1. *Study clients from the positive side, trying to bring to the surface the best elements in their characters: such as the will to do their best; courage; initiative; personal ideals.*

The first interview usually leaves one with a strong impression as to whether the client is positive, or weak and negative. Not many have definite purposes or plans for their lives. They are often living unhappily under most cramped conditions, wasting time and energy, striving for non-essentials. They are usually fearful too that the facts in their situation may become known and affect their social standing. This applies to the very poor as well as to those in temporary difficulty. In many, self-consciousness has become an obsession. To find that they have an "inferiority complex" may help; but it does not "touch the personal mystery that lies back of every thought and act of our lives."

The problem is to ascertain the ruling motive, and if that be one unworthy of the client, to try in countless ways to develop something better, and thus begin our relationship on a positive basis.

2. *After working with clients for some time and finding that little change can be made in mental attitudes, it is helpful to relax and drop all thought of improvement. A non-expectant attitude conserves our strength and has at times a very surprising effect on the client. After a while fresh view points may come to us or we may realize that the universal forces, that have no regard for time, must take their way.*

We may be trying to maintain impossible standards with those that find it difficult to adjust themselves to life at all. Our mental struggles are felt, and through our attitudes our clients suffer. To relax and quietly listen may be the greatest help. In several instances where this has been put in practice, clients have said, "Now I see that you understand."

3. *Have no fear of the grasping qualities supposedly inherent in the minds of those suffering from temporary disaster or permanent poverty. If we can lead a client really to think, we find that the grasping qualities are not so deep or terrible.*

There came to my office one day a poorly clad, forlorn and desperate woman, who, assuming an air of assurance, demanded help from a fund that had been left for those in need. "I have come for my share," she said. She was asked to tell her story and was assured that if her need came within the required conditions, the committee would gladly help her. Then followed a pathetic story of life with a drinking husband out of work, and seven sons over 17 years of age, also drinking and working little. How could she feed them without help? She was asked what she would do if she was in my position and had been given $100 to spend in helping her neighbors? Would she aid struggling widows with little children, the old, and the sick? or would she give it to a family where there were eight able-bodied people who drank and did not work? The mental conflict was evident. The air of bravado left her as, after a long pause, she solved her own problem by saying, "You need say nothing about me to your committee. I will see what I can do."

4. *Guard the confidence of clients and encourage them to maintain a dignified silence concerning their own affairs.*

We cannot rightly enjoy a person's confidence and at the same time not treat him in such a way as to maintain it. We surely need to be careful that we do not repeat damaging facts and opinions unless convinced that by so doing we are helping an individual or the common good. It is difficult to keep the balance true. Loyalties are far reaching and often more involved than truth telling. Who of us could face the world with fresh courage after knowing that our mistakes—and worse still, the moral deficiencies of those most dear to us—had been discussed?

We have in mind an executive who asked a man, whom he had helped work through a serious financial tangle on the basis of wise budgeting, if he could report to a State Conference the results. The man eagerly consented, hoping his experience might prove helpful to others. On this basis, vital experiences may often be shared.

5. *Whatever else we may try to do, we must try to preserve the self-respect of clients.*

Many feel that in accepting financial relief their personal freedom is lost. A lady through sudden misfortune was offered and obliged to accept relief. She asked if it would not be necessary to consult the social worker each time that she planned to make any necessary expenditure. The reply was that she could consult anyone but the social worker,

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who knew far less than she did of how to make a little money go a long way.

There is something deep in all of us that is opposed to restrictions. Only through freedom do we grow to a knowledge of our true relations to each other. With right decisions come conscious self-respect and greater dignity of character.

6. *The same methods which aim to give freedom of choice to the individual should be employed in our relations with groups and organizations in the community.*

For instance, different denominations hold diverse views about the care of their poor. Some churches organize and control funds enabling them to do their own social work. Others think it best to work through the organizations in the community.

A few people in a church once considered that their duty was first to meet their current expenses. Others thought that they were equally responsible for their unfortunate members. The social worker was asked for advice, but gave only the various ideals with no definite suggestion. Eventually, they thought their way through, and a policy was agreed upon that accepted both responsibilities. It is through exercising the privilege of freedom to weigh and balance their own problems that a greater spirit of civic and personal responsibility is developed.

7. *Bear always in mind the fact that any hard thing which ought to be said will be understood and well received in the long run if there is nothing but good will in our hearts.*

Clients who may not be able to plan for themselves may object to suggestions, even though they have nothing better to offer. Nevertheless, even though they see that going to a public institution is inevitable, for instance, they can still believe that if possible we would gladly find a different solution. This confidence in our good will leads to a sorrowful but not a rebellious acceptance of facts. It is not so much criticism that people resent as it is the censorious spirit in which it is given. We need to explain our position and our relation to the problem; and if this cannot be made clear, we have no right to say anything.

8. *Express as much honest appreciation as possible, explaining to clients how much we have gained through their experiences.*

9. *Share our own experiences and never be afraid of confessing a mistake.*

10. *In older people, cultivate the imagination by relating the past to the present and stimulating interest in new adventures.*

Life is the expression of certain great principles, and we work out these principles through our common human nature. The two elements that seem to affect us most are environment and the standard of expectation held by our associates. If we take a pessimistic attitude and think life is over twenty-five years before it may be, there is little hope of our accomplishing much for ourselves or for the aged in our communities.

But if in some way we can give to age the spirit of adventure and lift it out of the dead level of merely waiting for the end, it may touch these last years of life not only with a sense of peace and contentment but with a sense of hope and joy. We know of no elderly person who is satisfied to sit in a chimney corner and knit. The minds of the old grow less keen and more placid, but they can be easily aroused to an interest in the fresh viewpoints of youth. We remember a woman of 79 who continued to earn the larger part of her living through Italian needlework. When asked how she did it, she said, "Not through my will, but through my imagination. I always see myself doing it." Also, the instance of a woman of 82, who paid for a correspondence course in short story writing in order to be able to write the life of her husband, reveals how keen the desires of the old may be to achieve through fresh endeavors.

11. *We should not work for or expect gratitude from our clients, although we may often be obliged to accept it.*

William Ellery Channing has said that the danger of doing for others is dependent as much on the attitude of those who give as of those who receive. We all know that it is not what we do for clients but what we lead them to do for themselves that counts. The social case worker's relation to his clients is a most delicate one. It is so easy to fall into the role of benefactor. But taking the work day in and day out, we know we receive more inspiration than we give through watching the often heroic attempts to put into action new ideals. None of us like to relate our moral improvement to someone else. The pupil does not give the credit of a new awakening thought to the teacher, nor does the teacher wish him to. The client who leaves your office, saying, "Good morning. I have enjoyed our talk together," reveals much better the true relation between worker and client than the one who says, "God bless you, and may the saints preserve you for all you have done for me and mine." Respect and even affection may well be ours, but never a pauperizing sense of gratitude.

12. *Try to have and share a philosophy of life that may be strengthened by all religions or creeds, and understood by the most simple mind.*

If we are aiming to interpret human life, we need a philosophy so simple that it may be readily recognized as a fundamental reality. Some one once told Carlyle that Margaret Fuller said she had "accepted the universe." He replied, "She had better." When I inquired of one of the finest characters I ever knew, one who had endured great reverses and much suffering with apparently no rebellion in her heart, what was her secret, her answer was, "The greatest joy in life is the consciousness of power to endure." She too had made friends with the universe. This attitude of mind does not dissipate trouble or cripple initiative, but it does give inspiration to stand serene facing courageously the facts—which is more than half the battle. It does dignify each individual life as a part of the universal whole, and has a most potential psychological effect on daily living. It destroys false ambitions, but develops true aims. It looks upon mistakes as a part of growth. It casts out many things of which we have been afraid.*

ANNIE LOCKHART CHESLEY

* First Parish Paine Fund Report, 1924.

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HEALTH

A Full-Time Job

"THANKS to Jenner, not a single person in this audience is pock marked! One hundred and twenty-five years ago the faces of more than half of you would have been scarred." This was the striking statement made by Sir William Osler in his Silliman lectures at Yale during his last visit to America. Yet today the possibility of an epidemic of smallpox menaces many American communities. The assertion of Osler on the one hand and the recent history of some American cities on the other show both the progress that has been made in the last century in the control of one of the great scourges and the danger which lurks where eternal vigilance lags.

The practical elimination of smallpox and other great scourges, such as Asiatic cholera and yellow fever, and the dramatic reduction in the death rate from typhoid, dysentery and other water and milk born diseases, the diminution of the death rate from tuberculosis, constitute a great tribute to the intelligence, energy and devotion of the part-time health officers who have served and are still serving in this country.

These pioneers in public health, however, have only pointed the way and indicated the organization and the methods by which we may realize the prophecy of Pasteur that it is within the power of man to rid the world of all germ diseases. They are the ones who have told us what should be obvious: that so important a public function should be performed only by thoroughly trained or experienced officials, free from the vicissitudes of politics, devoting their entire thought and attention to the protection of the public health and to the promotion of health generally.

On the whole, part-time health officers and indeed poorly financed full time ones have given better service than the public had any right to expect, considering their remuneration and the handicaps under which they have worked. Much of the money thus spent has been wasted, since much of the work of the part-time health officer is not in prevention but in cleaning up outbreaks of diseases which might, at comparatively small expense, have been nipped in the bud. When one considers the results achieved under the present system, it will be found, by and large, that whenever a full-time, active, competent health officer is appointed, he soon succeeds in building up an effective organization, obtains the necessary funds, and makes headway in obtaining sewage disposal and clean milk. He lowers the infant mortality promptly and speedily. He accelerates the diminution of the death rate from tuberculosis; he engages in effective measures for the education of the public in health matters, and he generally succeeds in a striking manner in increasing the span of life of those who reside in the community which he serves.

At least every city of more than 50,000 should have a full-time health officer in order to make public health pay. By comparison with other states New York is very backward in this respect. Of the ten cities of more than 50,000 in New York only three have full-time health officers. In Massachusetts five out of eight cities of more than 50,000 population have full-time health officers. Pennsylvania has full-time health officers in seven of the eleven cities over 50,000; Ohio six out of nine, and Illinois four out of five.

Throughout the country we ought not to let pass the educational opportunity presented by the forthcoming elections. The state committee or other organized public health groups might prepare a brief and effective pamphlet, presenting the arguments in favor of full-time, fully qualified public health service. This pamphlet ought to contain reliable and convincing information for the candidates for the office of mayor and other members of the board of estimate and apportionment, or of other appropriating bodies. This pamphlet should be put in the hands of the local staff representatives, who should seek out the candidates as soon as they have thrown their hats into the ring—not singly, for it is always more effective to hunt in packs. They should, if possible, take with them the chairman or other influential members of the local committees, seek the opportunity to talk this matter over fully with every candidate, and leave in his hands literature which he can digest and can use for reference in his campaign announcements and speeches. When candidates of the leading parties have been duly nominated, they should again be followed up with supplementary information, by understanding and influential friends of theirs and of the cause. Indeed, it might be very well for the local representatives to have on hand paragraphs which candidates could introduce into their speeches, and there would be no harm in havng a few good speeches ready to hand out to receptive candidates.

The next move is with the mayor-elect. He should be tactfully reminded of his pre-election promises, and should be offered every assistance in planning to translate those promises into action. During his term of office he should not be allowed to forget that there is nothing more important to his community than its health, and there is no way in which health can be more effectively promoted than by the selection of a full-time health officer.

BUT if such an effort is successful, we create an interesting problem for ourselves. The men qualified by thorough training in modern schools of public health, or qualified by a rich experience in public health administration, are hard to find. To the plea for competent health officers comes the answer that they hardly exist.

We met similar obstacles in the early stages of our campaign against tuberculosis. When we began to promote the establishment of local sanatoria we were told that it was not possible to find qualified superintendents. It was not easy, and perhaps the present superintendents are not all well qualified, but some are excellently qualified and the demand is creating the supply. Similarly with respect to public health nurses—when we began our tuberculosis cam-

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paign in 1907 there were none, practically speaking. Certainly none were available outside of the great cities where public health nursing was just getting under way. Now, however, in New York state alone there are approximately 1100 public health nurses. They are not all thoroughly trained either in schools for public health nurses or in the school of experience, but most of them are, and more and more are becoming well trained. The demand is creating the supply, and so it will be with the full-time health officer. Indeed, the demand must precede the supply, and those who realize the need for this trained, full-time leadership must create the demand.

Perhaps no one thing is more effective in stimulating such a demand than records of cities with part time health officers and those with full-time service. Witness the comparison in the general death rate in these cities in New York state during the past five years:

CITIES WITH FULL-TIME HEALTH OFFICER

	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924
Rochester	12.1	11.5	11.3	11.1	10.6
New York City	13.0	11.2	11.9	11.7	11.8
Buffalo	14.6	12.6	12.0	13.2	12.7

CITIES WITH PART-TIME HEALTH OFFICER

	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924
Yonkers	11.4	9.3	10.7	10.2	10.0
Syracuse	15.2	12.0	12.6	13.0	12.0
Utica	13.1	13.0	12.6	13.4	12.8
Albany	15.7	15.2	15.7	16.2	15.4
Troy	17.0	16.3	18.3	18.5	18.9

Yonkers and Syracuse are classified in the part-time group because their health officers engage in the private practice of medicine; although technically part-time health officers they give virtually full-time service, which doubtless is a factor in placing these two cities at the head of the second group.

Witness the five-year record of infectious disease control and diminution of infant mortality, published in the December (1924) bulletin of the Health Bureau of the City of Rochester, which has had a most efficient full-time health officer, Dr. George W. Goler, for the last twenty-seven years:

INFECTIOUS DISEASE DEATHS PER 100,000 POPULATION

	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924
Diphtheria	28.1	25.5	15.8	10.9	4.5
Measles	9.8	.6	11.9	9.6	2.7
Scarlet Fever	9.4	7.8	2.9	1.5	3.6
Typhoid Fever	1.	3.2	2.5	2.1	1.1
Whopping Cough	7.1	13.1	3.9	6.8	3.3
Pneumonia	100.6	77.	108.2	90.7	80.4
Tuberculosis (all forms)	104.	86.8	61.2	74.	76.1

INFANT MORTALITY PER 1,000 BIRTHS

Deaths under one year	84	79	78	68	59

Dr. J. A. Ferrell of the Rockefeller Foundation, discussing the subject of full-time health officers at a recent meeting of the American Public Health Association, said,

To my mind the evidence favoring the full-time principle is so conclusive that there is really very little occasion for discussing the subject. [Referring to the fact that he had an unusual opportunity during the past ten years to observe rather closely the development of local health organizations, particularly with the county as a unit of territory, he said] I have failed to observe anywhere the satisfactory development of a county health service on part time basis. Where a physician looks to the practice of medicine as his permanent means of making a living, he is not going to be able to devote the time, energy and thought necessary to making the greatest success of his health work. If he has an opportunity to improve his own training, the chances are that he will attend clinics and take post-graduate courses in medicine. When a man becomes a full time health officer and he finds opportunity for improving himself, making his work more useful in his field, he will then take special training in the field of public health.

The thesis applies to cities as well as to counties.

SOME of us can remember when it was not uncommon for a school principal or a school superintendent to piece out his income by devoting part of his time to real estate or to law or to farming. We can remember the same demand for full-time school superintendents. We can remember the demand that they should be removed from politics. We can recall the later stage when we were told that we should find a qualified superintendent anywhere in the country and bring him to our city to rehabilitate our schools; and we can remember the outcry of the politicians against this revolutionary procedure. But the growing appreciation of education on the part of the public created a demand for qualified, full-time city superintendents of schools. Twenty-five years ago they did not exist, but as the demand grew Teachers College, Columbia University, grew from an institution of a few hundred students to its present enrollment of several thousand, and now colleges for teachers or schools of education are a part of many of our leading universities, and we have developed a highly qualified profession of school superintendents and principals as well as supervisors and teachers. We would not dream of going back to the old system.

It ought to be as uncommon and as inconceivable for a health officer to obtain or hold his position on the basis of any other consideration than adequate preparation or to work on part-time as it is for a school superintendent. Legal residence ought to play no more part in the selection of a health officer than of a superintendent of schools. The remuneration of a health officer surely ought to be commensurate with the remuneration of a school superintendent, and the tenure of office ought to be as secure. The selection of so important an official ought to be entirely free from political considerations. The selection of the fully trained, full-time health officer is the greatest single need in the advancement of public health today.

But even a full-time health officer cannot extract from the air all the rest of the resources necessary to organize the smallest unit of a health department. He must be backed by the resources of an organization. However, a man who has not only technical knowledge and administrative skill, but an understanding of group psychology, a publicity sense, and qualities of leadership, will be able to cultivate an informed public opinion and soon to command adequate appropriations to establish a well rounded, thoroughly organized health department in a relatively brief space of time.

As we direct our efforts to cultivating public opinion which will, in turn, create the demand for full-time health officers, simultaneously we must consider ways and means for supplying the demand for fully qualified candidates, as we did in the case of sanatorium and hospital superintendents and public health nurses. When this demand has been created and the supply is available, when the full-time, fully qualified health officer is the rule instead of the exception in this state and throughout the nation, there will be no

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menacing smallpox epidemics; there will be no typhoid to alarm the country or ruin an industry; there will be no diphtheria and perhaps no scarlet fever to terrify mothers or to torture children; tuberculosis will virtually disappear; the span of life will be lengthened by at least twenty years; our natural vitality will be vastly higher; and the sum total of human happiness will greatly increase throughout the land. JOHN A. KINGSBURY

Why Tolerate Smallpox?

THE sanitary teachings of two generations ago placed the responsibility for malaria on decayed vegetation in swamps, for cholera on decayed fruit and vegetables, and for diphtheria on some defect in house drains which allowed the air of dwellings to become poisoned. Even the most modern plumbing codes contain vestiges of this doctrine, while many nuisances held to be injurious to health by our state laws and municipal ordinances consist mainly of offensive odors.

Pasteur's theory that disease is caused by specific germs at first made slow headway against the older ideas, but his demonstration of the universal presence of bacteria in air, water and food finally led to a curious compromise with the theory that filth is the cause of disease. According to the terms of this compromise, filth was declared dangerous to health because it furnished a breeding place for disease germs which later spread through the air. In no other way then known to sanitarians could the mysterious occurrence of isolated cases of communicable disease be explained.

The application of the germ theory in the closing years of the Nineteenth century led to an era of sanitation during which much attention was paid to the purification of water supplies, to sanitary sewage disposal, and to the pasteurization of milk. The discovery of the relation of certain insects to disease opened larger vistas for environmental sanitation and made possible the building of the Panama Canal. It was the discovery of the insect carrier for yellow fever, previously held to be a typical filth disease, that led Dr. C. V. Chapin, of Providence, R. I., to assert that the mysterious occurrence of isolated cases of certain communicable diseases could be explained otherwise than by air-borne infection. Chapin showed that the life of disease germs is limited after they are discharged from the body, that quarantine, isolation, and disinfection are of little value in disease control, that air and fomites are not concerned in the mysterious spread of infection, and that the true sources must be sought for in healthy human carriers and mild unrecognized cases.

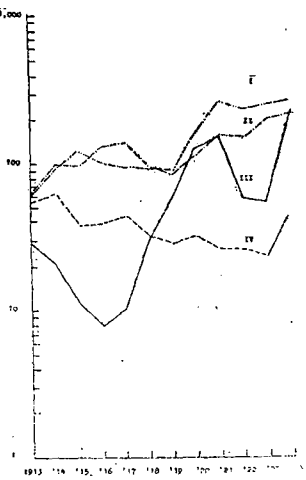
Chapin's teachings have been accepted readily by all scientific epidemiologists but not by a large portion of the population, a circumstance which caused him to write recently that he thought that Gorgas had driven the last nail in the coffin of the filth theory of disease twenty years ago, but that "in these days of Conan Doyle and Oliver Lodge, it is not surprising that its spirit still stalks, not at midnight, but at noon day." This mistaken belief that specific disease germs originate or multiply in places where organic matter may decay persists widely, fostered by the absurd claims of certain advertisements, such as one carried recently in a widely circulated popular magazine which exhorts: 'Continue to disinfect . . . the familiar germ-breeding spots —garbage pail, toilet bowl, drain pipes. Every part of your home is then made health-clean to safeguard your family."

It is the part of the population still clinging to such beliefs which looks to sanitation to protect them against each and every communicable disease, not realizing that the control of the environment is limited. Its very real and great victories have occurred primarily in the case of diseases of intestinal origin—such as typhoid fever and hookworm; and diseases borne by insects (yellow fever, malaria, and the like) two groups which can be affected by the protection of water supplies, the destruction of insect breeding places and of rat harbors. But for the greater number of communicable diseases more direct and personal measures are necessary; they can be shown to continue and even to increase in communities where water and milk are carefully safeguarded and other sanitary precautions are observed.

On account of the prevalence of carriers and missed cases, the respiratory infections will never be controlled by the isolation of recognized cases or by any means directed against the environment. These infections are spread by personal contact and the only defense against them lies in the possession of an immunity secured either naturally, through repeated accidental reception of small amounts of infectious material; or artificially, through deliberate inoculation with the attenuated germ of the disease, as in smallpox vaccination, or with a substance produced by the germ, as in diphtheria and scarlet fever immunization. The defense against this group of diseases is of so individual and so personal a character that any attempt toward compulsory immunization is resented as an infringement on personal liberty even by persons who advocate compulsory community measures.

California has followed the trend of the times in modern progressive legislation on water supply, sewage disposal, malaria control, and milk sanitation. Sir Alfred Wallace tells us that scarlet fever, diphtheria and smallpox have all diminished as sanitation has increased. Let us examine the evidence as contained in the morbidity figures for the years 1913-24, inclusive, as reported to the California State Board of Health.

In the accompanying chart the annual rates per 100,000 of the population of the state of California for diphtheria, scarlet fever, smallpox and typhoid fever have been estimated and plotted. It is at once apparent that in 1913, scarlet fever, diphtheria and typhoid fever were very close together, while smallpox occupied a lower position. In the succeeding eleven years the close relation between scarlet fever and diphtheria has been maintained. In spite of progress in sanitation their trends are steadily upward; the 1924 rate is four times that of 1913 in the case of diphtheria, and three times that of 1913 in the case of scarlet fever. Subject only to the great cyclical variations occurring in each generation, it is safe to predict that they will re-



California morbidity rates per 100,000 of population for (1) diphtheria, (2) scarlet fever, (3) smallpox, and (4) typhoid fever. This chart was computed and drawn by E. L. Lucia

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main at a high level until the popularization of the recently discovered method of active immunization against diphtheria, and the more recently discovered, and still largely experimental, method of active immunization against scarlet fever may bring about a permanent reduction.

That there has been progress in sanitation during this period cannot be denied, indeed it is confirmed by the behavior of typhoid fever. The pressure of legislation for the protection of water and milk supplies has forced the typhoid fever rate down until the 1923 rate was approximately one-half that of 1913. The spread of typhoid fever through personal contact is negligible. The appearance of typhoid fever in epidemic form in California is a signal for epidemiologists and sanitary engineers to search for a cross connection between a sewer system and a water supply (Santa Ana, 1924); for the temporary failure of a chlorination plant (Pittsburgh, 1920); or in the preparation of food consumed by a group (Hanford, 1914). In fact, the 1924 increase in the typhoid fever rate is due entirely to approximately 600 cases occurring in two almost simultaneous epidemics in Santa Ana, California.

For the first three years of this period there would have been, apparently, some grounds for a belief that smallpox was affected by sanitary improvements. However, in spite of measures which have cut the typhoid fever rate in half, smallpox has joined diphtheria and scarlet fever with a rate for 1924 eight times that of 1913 and thirty times that of 1916. In 1924, there were 9,425 cases of smallpox reported in California; the largest number reported for that year by any state in the Union. However, not one case occurred among students at this university where vaccination of all non-immune entrants is required. What factors are responsible for this remarkable rise of smallpox?

Before the Civil War, the Negro slaves, as valuable property, were protected by compulsory vaccination. A result of their emancipation was the rapid formation of a large unvaccinated Negro population. Coincidently there grew up in the newly settled Middle West a generation of the unvaccinated children of vaccinated immigrants. About thirty years ago there appeared among the southern Negroes a form of smallpox so mild that its identity was questioned. It was in all respects identical with the milk-pox of South Africa and alastrim of Brazil. Apparently repeated passage among Negroes has a modifying effect on its virulence even when transmitted to the white race. This disease spread rapidly throughout the western states, reaching the Pacific Coast while our troops were returning from service in the Philippine Insurrection, a circumstance which accounts for its local name of Manila Itch. The extreme mildness of the disease favored its spread and it has become practically endemic throughout the United States except in those states with strict vaccination laws. In general these states are found in the North Atlantic group, with the exception of South Carolina, which, though surrounded by neighbors with a fairly high smallpox incidence, has a rate comparing favorably with that of the northern states. The law of South Carolina provides for vaccination of infants and revaccination school children.

Vaccination of children at the time of admission to school was compulsory in California until 1911 when the law was amended to permit of the filing of certificates of conscientious objection. These certificates became so numerous that many cities ceased to enforce the law. In 1916, the new law had been in operation for five years and a large unvaccinated school population under 12 years of age had grown up. The median age for smallpox in that year was 22. In 1921, the new law had been in operation for ten years and the unvaccinated population of the states was largely composed of children under 17. In that year the median age for smallpox was 15, the peak was 8, and 93 per cent of the cases had never been vaccinated. Smallpox had resumed its pre-Jennerian place as a children's disease.

The state Board of Health realized that the Act of 1911 was a failure and in 1921 secured the passage of the present vaccination act which places the control of smallpox under the state Board of Health and prohibits the adoption of any regulation on the subject of vaccination by school or local health authorities. The regulations of the state Board of Health, which have been in effect since 1917, provide for the isolation of cases with supervision and vaccination of contacts. It is too early to judge of the effects of the withdrawal, in California, of all legislation in support of general vaccination, but the smallpox rate of 1924, double that for 1921, is suggestive, to say the least.

The death-rate from smallpox is increasing in the United States. California is exposed continually to invasions of the severe Asiatic type of disease which has been endemic in Mexico since its introduction by Cortez in 1519. The death rate which was 0.06 per 100,000 in 1914 has reached 1.4 for 1924. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company reports a case fatality of 0.6 per cent in 1920 and 5.7 per cent in 1922, for 246 American cities. In Denver, nearly a third of the smallpox cases in 1922 and 1923 ended in death, while Kansas City, Kansas, lost 42.3 per cent of its smallpox cases in 1922, and the Missouri city of the same name lost 46.3 per cent. In 1922, a man, in the incubation stage of smallpox, went from Kansas City to Poteau, Oklahoma, and was responsible for an epidemic of 38 cases with 24 deaths. Of 144 deaths in the Denver epidemic, 126 were of persons who had never been vaccinated, and the remaining 18 of persons who had been vaccinated more than twenty years previously.

The law of New York state provides that vaccination shall be a condition of school attendance in cities of the first and second classes at all times and it is a condition of school attendance in the rest of the state when smallpox has been declared epidemic by the state commissioner of health. During the years 1915-20, the average rate per 100,000 population of New York was 2.6, the maximum being 5.0, and the minimum 0.3. These rates are the lowest in the country for any state reporting smallpox each year of the period. At the other end of the scale from New York, we have Kansas, with no compulsory vaccination, where the average rate was 200.0, the maximum 400.0 and the minimum 120.0. The example of South Carolina has been cited. This state requires vaccination of school children during the first, sixth and fifteenth years of age. The rates are: average 22.0, maximum 64.0 and minimum 6.0, which is an excellent showing when it is considered that South Carolina is one of a group of states whose combined rates ranged from 30.0 to 90.0.

Similarly striking variations in the frequency of smallpox can be found in a comparison (*Continued on page* 107)

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Wood-cut by Frank Brangwyn

THE PRESS

Books in Our Alcove

Edited by Leon Whipple

THE new Grub Street seems to cross Main Street, U. S. A. just about the corner the public library stands on. But the folks who live in this starvation lane are no longer the authors or publishers or printers, but the librarians. The publishers pay income taxes, the printers get the healthy union scale, many authors net royalties per annum that would have endowed Milton or Spinoza or Goldsmith for life. But the librarians grow parchment-skinned and fretful trying to make ends meet—the ends of their pitiful salaries, the ends of the fund for books. Yet they are the shock troops who send the book into the home. They guide the reading of the nation—so far as it has any guide! And if we believe that good books are good tools in democracy, and that libraries are one of the best ways of getting books to people, then this business of starving librarians and stinting on books should stop.

This broad view has a local text. The greatest library in the world in what Americans call the greatest city in the world is being starved to death. The New York City Public Library last year circulated nine and a half million books. Yet since 1920 the appropriation for the circulation department has receded from $127,500 to $61,090 the past three years. The cost of books has meantime risen 20 per cent. The stock of books on shelves has actually been falling over eleven thousand a year. In branch libraries there are sometimes fifty applications on file for the single copy of Walter Page's Letters, or Papini's Lift of Christ. That's bad business. It means an indifference to providing good books such as used to prevail about supplying good milk. Certainly the meeting of such an appeal is part of civilization.

The personnel is being pinched in like manner. At this moment the Staff Association of the Library is appealing to Father Knickerbocker for a living wage. Nearly half of the staff of the circulation department get from $19 to $23.50 a week. Data gathered by the Association indicates that $26.08 is the lowest sum on which an unmarried library worker can live decently in New York; while garment workers average from $32 to $38 per week, and printers from $53 to $65. It's a queer scale that pays the man who prints a book two or three times what the woman gets who acts as guide to the people's reading from youth to age. The result is that 21 per cent of the circulation staff resign every year—a turn-over that must prevent efficiency. Many librarians have to do extra work outside their regular hours, or live part parasites on their families. The New York Association is asking a uniform salary increase of $400 and an appropriation of $253,300 for books. We need scarcely add they should get both.

But the larger lessons are what interest us most. First, this campaign is not only for more salary, but for a better library. The people who do the work are fighting for the institution they serve and love. They set a higher standard

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of service, and then they contribute the money and organize the publicity to gain this standard. They are setting a good example to the teachers and journalists. The members of the intellectual guilds must have a larger voice in improving the professions they follow. The faculties must have more control over education and the editorial staff more control over newspapers. These delicate social functions of directing intellectual life cannot be turned over to lay boards of politicians, business men regents, or profit-seeking publishers. The devoted men and women who teach, who edit, and who serve in the book stacks must have a voice in determining the technique and purposes of the institutions that demand of them loving service, yet entrust no responsibility.

The second point is simply that if any library is to become that great center of culture, entertainment, technical information and adult education of which we dream, it must be given money enough to do its task. New York has proven peculiarly niggardly and short-sighted, but we dare affirm that all librarians are underpaid and all libraries crippled by scanty funds. It may be true that New York is third from the bottom in the list of per capita appropriations for libraries among the thirty largest libraries of the nation, and gives for books only one fourth of what Cleveland finds possible. But none give enough; and below New York are Philadelphia and Washington—the capital! The meaning of the library in modern society is not clearly grasped anywhere, and so we rejoice in the valiant effort of the librarians of New York and their guild to establish the dignity of their profession by demanding a decent wage, and to fight for their institution by demanding for it too a living wage.

Coal and the Commission

COAL, by Edward T. Devine. American Review Service Press, Bloomington, Ill. 400 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.

THIS book was written cooperatively by several Devines. There is Devine the editor and lecturer, gifted in the use of polished phrases, imaginative, quick witted, resourceful. His hand in the matter makes the book interesting and readable from beginning to end.

Then there is the Devine who as a member of the U. S. Coal Commission came face to face with the facts as few men have an opportunity to do. He saw the coal industry in all of its phases and the book in consequence is a rich storehouse of information admirably suited to the purposes of the busy citizen who wants to know something about the vital problem of coal but who does not have access to the bulky reports of the Coal Commission and could not analyze them if he did. Commissioner Devine has done an excellent bit of summarization and simplification for the man in the street. Incidentally the book reveals the kindly tolerant personality who cannot speak harshly even of the villains of the drama—the Commissioner who, one suspects, did not get into the coal report all that he would have liked nor always in the language he would have chosen, but who thought unanimity far better than minority reports. In 1913 when the U. S. Industrial Relations Commission was created there was some talk that one of the members would bear the name of Devine. Those who recall those stormy days—as it came out, the nine Commissioners wrote ten reports—cannot help wondering what he would have done with that Donnybrook fair.

In the third place there is Devine the preacher who lectures owners, operators, miners and dealers and urges them to change from their evil ways, sometimes holding out to them the idea that virtue is to be preferred and sometimes sternly warning them to flee from the wrath to come.

And finally there is Devine the economist whose presence on the stage is occasionally somewhat confusing both to the conciliator and to the preacher.

The book is an attempt to set before the busy reader a quick summary of the facts as discovered by the Coal Commission. As indicated above this task is well and entertainingly performed. The author presents the essential characteristics of anthracite and bituminous mining, the problems of both, the labor problem of coal, the faults of distribution, the plight of the consumer and some suggestions as to a "national policy."

Anthracite and bituminous mining are dealt with separately as they should be. In the section devoted to anthracite one reads of an industry concentrated in area, largely monopolized as to ownership, yielding enormous profits, paying a living wage to contract miners regularly employed, and somewhat less to the others, and charging constantly higher prices whether costs justify it or not. Since 1913 the price per ton received by the operator has risen 250 per cent; while labor cost rose only 145 per cent. An interesting comparison is given between cost of production and producers' margin in 1913 and in the first quarter of 1923. Costs were 129 per cent higher and producers' margin 489 per cent higher. Mr. Devine suggests however, that the disparity would have been less if the figures for the whole year of 1923 had been available. One of the elements in the high cost of anthracite is the "depletion account"—a sum set aside each year to compensate the owner for the depletion of his capital by the withdrawal of coal. This is entirely legitimate since without it the owner would have, when the mines were exhausted, neither an income on coal nor the basis for establishing a new income from another source. It is as legitimate as figuring the cost of fertilizers and other means of restoring the soil as part of the cost of producing crops. But a depletion account cannot legitimately do more than maintain capital intact, yet Mr. Devine shows that the rate of addition to these funds is sometimes such as not only to restore exhausted capital but to treble or quadruple it. Instances are given of charging new construction to operating costs, though how general this may be is not stated. After large additions to surplus and depletion accounts seven of the largest companies were reported as paying dividends during the period 1913-22, ranging from 7½ per cent, the lowest paid by any company in any year, to 205 per cent which was the record figure reached by one company in 1921.

The bituminous problem presented is the familiar one of over-development, uncertainty, irregularity of employment and, on the profit side, alternate periods of feast and famine. It is an industry that can assure to its workers only about two-thirds employment in the year and consequently has to pay what appears to be a high rate of wages in order to give the workers an income considerably below that of the anthracite miner. Relatively, the anthracite miners work much more steadily, though Mr. Devine's statement that "the seasonal aspect has disappeared and regular employment can be counted on" seems a trifle optimistic. The average working year, according to Mr. Devine, is one of 270 days, which leaves a full month of unemployment,

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on the average, for every miner, in addition to his Sundays and holidays.

One could wish for a fuller discussion of the labor problem, or failing that, citations of other texts where the subject is treated. Winthrop D. Lane's Civil War in West Virginia, for example, fills in the details of conditions in non-union territory that could only be touched upon by Mr. Devine. It would have been helpful if there could have been a discussion of the significance of the "Jacksonville agreement" in the bituminous industry. It is pointed out that union membership in the bituminous fields is declining, and for the first time in many years half of the output of bituminous coal is non-union. To what is this due? Is there a conspiracy to wreck the union afoot and is it succeeding, or is the union through ill-advised leadership laying the foundation for its own undoing? The reviewer suspects that both forces are at work, but Mr. Devine neither confirms nor dispels that impression.

There is a brief but vivid discussion of living conditions. One gets the impression that even in the anthracite fields where income is relatively higher the miner does not get a great deal in terms of "living" in return for his labor. In the bituminous fields household budgets collected by the Commission showed an abnormal amount spent for food, "usually a symptom of inadequate income and a low standard of living." There was an excess of starch, fats and sugar in the diet, "the kind of food which appeases hunger at least cost," and lean meats, milk, fruit and vegetables figured in amounts far below what is considered essential to health.

In the concluding section there is a healthy demand for the recognition of rights. Let there be no thought of coercion to make the mines either union or non-union. The author scouts the idea that West Virginia should be maintained as non-union territory in order to protect the country against a labor monopoly. It would be as sensible, he suggests, to keep one transcontinental railroad system and one running from North to South free from unionism and employ railroad detectives and guards to keep the organizers off by force. Likewise he is opposed to compulsory arbitration. We do not know enough yet to adjust labor controversies by governmental force. On the other hand the union must become something more than a belligerent army even though its belligerency in the past has raised wages and made conditions better. It must develop constructive policies and concern itself with the progress of the industry of which it is a part.

It is not alone the union, but all of the various factors in the industry whom Mr. Devine summons to a house cleaning. Under the headings What the Owner Can Do, What the Operator Can Do, What the Miner Can Do, etc., he calls upon all of them to give up their most cherished economic practices. It is a fine rallying call, but does he really believe that they will respond without compulsion? Economist Devine on an earlier page in defending the operators' policy of restriction of output gives the reasons for their adherence to policies of economic self-interest and states clearly that nothing else is to be expected.

In discussing remedies that will conserve the industry and protect the consumer Mr. Devine dismisses government ownership as at present outside the realm of practical politics. He proposes, as the Coal Commission did, that coal mining should be classed as a public utility, that profits and royalties should be subject to a federal tax and that the industry should be subjected to drastic regulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The Commission should control over-expansion by denying shipping facilities to new developments. It could make assignment of cars dependent on ability to sell the product rather than mining equipment. It might even be given the power it already has over railroads, to decide whether a new development is needed, and if so, to issue a certificate of convenience and necessity without which the new mine could not be opened. It could have control over the issuance of securities and over contracts with consumers and with carriers. It might be empowered to issue licenses without which an operator could not ship coal in interstate commerce. Behind all this, of course, would be federal legislation prescribing the basic standards under which the regulating powers of the commission would be exercised. JOHN A. FITCH

Sex Courts

SPECIALIZED COURTS DEALING WITH SEX DELINQUENCY, *by George E. Worthington and Ruth Topping. Frederick H. Hitchcock, New York. 460 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS painstaking, unprejudiced study of specialized courts dealing with sex delinquency, the Morals Court of Chicago, The Misdemeanants' Division of the Philadelphia Municipal Court, The Second Sessions of the Municipal Court of the City of Boston and the Women's Day Court of Manhattan and The Bronx makes one pause. The first part of the book seeks "to describe the structure, jurisdiction, and procedure, social as well as legal," of the courts studied. What realism, what restraint! Of course one expects in a modern social investigation a professional detachment. But one is staggered by the mere weight of the facts; the difficulties of collecting statistics, the rush of "cases" (In the Chicago Morals Court—cases disposed of from April 7, 1913, to December 1, 1913—5005), the meager human history that is taken account of by the court: the rapidity of the trials, the absence of records, the inadequacy of procedure, the machine-like nature of the structure; the facts so clearly, admirably presented that their impact forces one to a realization that modern civilization "burdened with prostitutes and their customers, incorrigible and runaway girls with their concomitant problems of defective heredity, vicious environment, mental abnormality, disease, drug addiction" is without adequate power to solve human misery, however vigorous may be the machinery which it has set up to deal with the end result.

The second part of the book contains a summary and comparative study of the special courts, together with suggested standards for a socialized court. The suggestions are thoroughly sound. Emphasis on probation "nothing more nor less than social case work in courts," "constructive measures on behalf of the delinquent, and not merely noting the outcome of the case" is especially timely.

This book should be in the hands of all those who work in courts or social agencies. It is a much needed piece of research. Without "moralizing" it pictures our situation, without taint of prejudice it suggests obvious changes in our procedure in behalf of those who violate our codes of sex-behavior. Its social implications are tremendous.

MIRIAM VAN WATERS

Referee of the Juvenile Court
Los Angeles County.

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Why You Grow Old

THE DEGENERATIVE DISEASES, by Lewellys F. Barker, M.D. and Thomas P. Sprunt, M.D. Harper & Brothers. 254 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.

THE so-called degenerative diseases in their minor forms actually constitute the process of ageing. Hence a study of the causative factors and the means of controlling them involves not only a consideration of the human body but of human life—a broad biological as well as clinical viewpoint.

The authors have approached this subject from the modern standpoint. While devoting adequate space to a description of the degenerative affections in their well developed and manifest forms, they have reversed the traditional procedure and have given most of their attention to the causative factors; and this in a very painstaking and effective way.

Heredity is first given important attention, and next the various environmental factors such as infections, poisons, psychic and bodily strains, and the endogenous and exogenous factors are carefully considered. This logical arrangement has led to a very practical and efficient consideration of the measures of prevention—that is, the consideration of the management of these conditions in well developed and advanced stages is subordinated to counsel directed to the elimination of the original causative factors.

It is extremely gratifying to read a book of this description coming from the pens of men of wide experience in the clinical field. The philosophical balance of the book is shown in the careful consideration given to the subject of eugenics. This is in contrast to the all too common custom of looking upon these diseases as immediate clinical problems rather than of following them to their source. While, in the main, the relative importance of eugenics and euthenics is fairly presented and it is frankly stated that in man the question of environmental factors is far more important than in animals, the inference might be drawn from the chapter on The Relation of Heredity to Health and Disease that heredity is the major factor in determining longevity. The studies of Pearl and others are mentioned and Pearl is quoted as stating in relation to the possible increase of thirteen years in the expectation of life due solely to medicine and hygiene, "No more striking demonstration could be found of the overwhelming importance of heredity in determining duration of life."

Pearl's experimental studies on the inheritance of duration of life in the common "fruit" or "vinegar" fly are also mentioned as upholding this thesis. It would have been wise at this point to have mentioned the experiments of Loeb and others on the same organism which showed a prolongation of nine hundred times its usual life cycle solely through control of environmental factors. This would seem to explode the notion that we must look mainly to heredity for the extension of human life. Indeed, the whole discussion throughout the book actually gives adequate emphasis to environmental agencies. It may be true that in the past heredity has been the main factor in determining the life cycle of organisms and it will always be an important factor to be reckoned with. The quality of the tubing that one inherits, as Osler has stated, is highly important in determining the longevity of the circulation and therefore of the individual. But it is not conceivable that any extraordinary extension of human life can ever be attained except through environmental agencies.

A lingering trace of the traditional clinical viewpoint is found in certain comments not entirely consistent with the main thesis of the book. For example, among the causes of arteriosclerosis we find "age," and it is stated that the "decrescent" type of arteriosclerosis is probably inevitable and not preventable. Allbutt has given expression to a similar fallacy in ascribing decrescent arteriosclerosis to the "wings of time." This is allegory but not etiology.

It is true that the theory of wear and tear is superficially a plausible one, but it will not bear analysis. If the mere amount of work that the heart and circulation carries is sufficient explanation of a final breakdown, then people in poor physical state with low heart power could not be built up and their circulation ultimately maintained on a much higher plane over long periods of years. In an ideal condition of waste and repair an originally sound bodily mechanism should go on indefinitely until interfered with by some outside agency or by some endogenous poison. Lewis has called attention to the fallacy of ascribing cardiac breakdown to physical strain. When the heart breaks down under physical strain there will usually be found some antecedent cooperating factor, such as infection or poison. The cumulative effect of psychic strain may be important but it is a controllable factor. It is not inevitably a cause of breakdown and should not be confused with time itself. The truth of the matter is that the little old man with the scythe and hour-glass has nothing whatever to do with it. The tissue changes commonly present in advanced life are the result of definite causes which are satisfactorily grouped in this excellent volume—without dragging in Old Father Time!

Altogether The Degenerative Diseases is an excellent book, free from needless technicalities and well worthy of the perusal of physicians as well as laymen, and soundly adapted to the audience for which it is intended.

EUGENE LYMAN FISK, M.D.
Life Extension Institute, New York

Let's Have Healthy Children

CHILD HYGIENE, by Dr. S. Josephine Baker. Harper & Bros. 534 pp Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.

EVERY student of child health problems will enthusiastically welcome Dr. Baker's book Child Hygiene. We have needed just such a comprehensive discussion and no one is better equipped to give it than Dr. Baker who is responsible for so much progress in child hygiene, not only in her own city and state, New York, but throughout the entire country.

The chapters that give the background of the slow but steady movement forward in matters pertaining to the child in its relation to the state are of compelling interest. Dr. Baker has succeeded in placing clearly before us the significance of years of effort to better the conditions of child life, the relation of health to disease, of disease to health, the relation of public opinion to laws, of laws to the living of life . . . All briefly, vividly, and authoritatively.

The chapters devoted to the administration of the various types of child hygiene work, maternity and infancy health centers, day nurseries and to the various aspects of school hygiene work are invaluable to medical and lay readers. It is so easy to fumble along in these matters with fine enthusiasm and the best of intentions and miss the goal because we have not really studied the problem. Vital statistics, records and record keeping are presented not as dry skeletons upon which to hang theories but as truly

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dynamic forces by which the whole movement of child health conservation moves forward.

The main activities of the book deal with the mother, the baby, the preschool child and the school age child and the whole discussion is broadly sane and sound. Dr. Baker's chapter on the Reduction of Infant Mortality is splendidly convincing. The proof of the success of measures used in the past is clearly given but with no attitude of finality. In fact that attitude of forward-looking openmindedness is characteristic of Dr. Baker's handling. Wherever criticism of past or present methods is given, it is always constructive. When there is a difference of opinion, all angles of the subject are fairly presented.

Dr. Baker's book contains no artificial divisions. The mother, the baby, the preschool child and the school child are not discussed in pigeon holes. "In health work" she says, "there are no artificial divisions. Health care must be continuous and consecutive; and if we are considering the health of the child alone, it makes little difference whether we supervise it during the preschool age as a continuation of our program for baby care, or whether we consider it as a preparation for school life."

Such a book as this giving as it does the history of organizations, the mistakes and achievements of the child hygiene movement, might easily have been "cluttered up" with too great a mass of material. Dr. Baker has avoided this by showing fine discrimination in her presentation of facts and in her use of tables and statistics.

The book is a stimulating challenge to work harder for the realization of better health conditions. The author bases her whole philosophy of child hygiene upon "consecutive work, preventive and educational methods, and community and individual activities." "Healthy adult life is practically impossible unless based upon healthy childhood." The responsibility for sound public health rests ultimately upon the public. The education of that public is the immediate task of every board of education, every board of health in every state in the union. Child Hygiene is a splendid text-book for such boards, for every teacher in our schools, for every social worker, for every nurse, for every medical student, for every physician and for every father and mother.

WILLIAM PALMER LUCAS, M.D.

San Francisco

Twelve American Ideals

THE HISTORY OF AMERICAN IDEALISM, *by Gustavus Myers. Boni and Liveright. 350 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. MYERS' attention has been shifted from "great fortunes" to "great ideals." America has been prolific of both: the one leads to the other. It can be demonstrated that all the possessors of great fortunes have been idealists.

"This book abounds," says the author, "with evidences that it is the American nature not to be content with compromising or halfway performances but to proceed in a true thoroughbred style toward a complete settlement." What are some of these great achievements which we Americans have carried through to completion, each an illustration of our unconquerable Idealism?

The first was the "enduring establishment" of "Religious Liberty," "the inviolate right of every individual to worship as he believed, or if he so pleased, not to worship at all." "The overthrow of monarchy" was "the second notable accomplishment of the American people." The uprooting of aristocratic doctrines of class superiority and of the desirability of lives of idleness was the third great achievement. The destruction of the ancient monopoly of learning and the extension of education to all was the fourth, out of which came the national desire for an American culture, now one of the most obvious ideals of the people.

The abolition of slavery was the fifth great task. The democratization of the arts and of the artists was the sixth: "It changed the arts from a thing which had long ministered to a privileged few into a popular institution of culture." The eighth great accomplishment was that of bringing liberty to other lands, like Cuba, Porto Rico and the Philippines. The ninth tremendous service carried America idealistically into the World War on the side of "right." The tenth came during and following the war—that "strengthening of moral forces" that found its expression in prohibition. The eleventh was that great "compact to suppress war"—the League of Nations. And the twelfth and last great accomplishment has been the "curbing of plutocracy," or, at any rate, the expression of a hope that it will yet be curbed.

Each of these "great accomplishments" might serve equally well however as a sermon on the vanity of human hopes. Not a single one of these accomplishments is a finished task. Americans have truly been "idealists": they have wished for the Happy Isles. But with this sentiment we can heartily agree: "As an idealistic nation America has proved that, after all, history is still in an incipient stage."

J. K. HART

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Education

WHOLESOME CHILDHOOD, *by Ernest R. Groves and Gladys Hoagland Groves. Houghton Miflin Company. 163 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS BOOK gives in popular form the principles which the authors have found useful in handling the training of their own children and in advising other parents. "It aims," they declare, "to handle child-training in the same way that the physical problems of childhood have been so well treated by books on the physical care of children. . . . It is written to help parents maintain the wholesome homes that prevent the origin of those problems of childhood that, in the authors' experience, are the most troublesome."

THE EDUCATION OF BEHAVIOR, *by I. B. Saxby. Putnams. 260 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

OF THE MAKING of books on education there is no end; and in this particular book there seems to be little that is either new or distinctly modern. The author confesses that he owes much of it to McDougall's Social Psychology—a confession which dates the book back from five to ten years. He also acknowledges the help of the psychoanalysts, especially Freud and Jung; but he takes over materials from both of these without developing any critical account of their significant differences. There are valuable sections, but the book as a whole does not hang together.

J. K. H.

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

THE COMMUNITY CHEST is coming into maturity. "The Denver Conference"—as it appeared to the editor of The Survey (July 15, 1925) "may be said to mark the tidal reach of this new organizing force in local social work." The community chests have had their own national clearing-house, the American Association for Community Organization, since 1919. For its first three years it did its work through the voluntary service of members of the staff of the older and larger federations. In 1922 it requested and secured the service of the National Information Bureau (which since its formation in 1918 had maintained close and friendly relations with its community chest clients) to act as its executive secretary. The Association has materially increased its usefulness and its income during the three and a half years of this relationship, and now feels itself ready to operate entirely on its own. It announces, therefore, that on January 1, 1926 it will set up independent offices and employ its own full-time executive staff, broadly hinting at the same time that eventually its headquarters will be moved out of New York and into the Middle West where community chests had their origin and are most firmly established.

ARTHUR A. GUILD has resigned as director of the Social Service Federation of Toledo, Ohio, to become director of the Richmond Community Fund.

NEW YORK'S new welfare council starts the fall equipped with an executive director in the person of William Hodson, president of the American Association of Social Workers and director of the Department of Social Legislation of the Russell Sage Foundation. For many years Mr. Hodson was a resident of Minneapolis where he was associated with the State Board of Control. Four studies started last spring by the executive committee of the Welfare Council are now complete, or well along toward completion. These include a study of existing information services on social work, by Knowlton Mixer and Kathryn Farra; a collection of information regarding research made in the past five years on welfare problems in New York City, by Shelby M. Harrison and Allen Eaton of the Russell Sage Foundation; a classification of social agencies in the city according to the functional grouping in the plan for the Council, by Edith Shatto King and Augusta Frear of the Bureau of Advice and Information of the C.O.S.; and a study of the results accomplished by functional councils of social agencies in the larger American cities, by Robert W. Kelso, of the Boston Council of Social Agencies.

ANNA DRAKE has been appointed supervisor of nurses at the Cincinnati Tuberculosis Sanatorium and instructor in the School of Nursing and Health of the University of Cincinnati. Miss Drake has served since 1918 as director of public health nursing in the Iowa Department of Health.

THE UNITED JEWISH CHARITIES of Detroit will open a new building next spring as the Leopold Wineman Health Center, the gift of Mrs. Henrietta Wineman as a memorial to her husband. It replaces, with greatly increased facilities, the North End Community Clinic in that city.

EDWARD M. CLOPPER, formerly of the Cincinnati Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies, went to Pittsburgh on October first as secretary of the (non-financial) Federation of Social Agencies, which has sixty-five member organizations.

THE AUTUMN starts with Frank J. Bruno in St. Louis, Joanna Colcord in his former job in Minneapolis, and Anna Kempshall as superintendent of district work in the New York C.O.S., the place Miss Colcord left behind her. Miss Kempshall has been associated recently with the International Migration Service, but has an earlier background of work with the C.O.S. Josephine Waldron has been appointed secretary of the Inter-city Bureau of the C.O.S. to succeed Anne Hutchings, who has gone to the Buffalo C.O.S. as director of volunteers.

ESTELLE AND SAM, Gertrude and Gus, Irene and Nicholas, and the other entertaining protegés whom Eleanor Rowland Wembridge has introduced to Survey readers are soon to make their debut together in a book of Mrs. Wembridge's stories published by the Houghton Mifflin Company. Seven P. M. which appeared in last October's Graphic was quoted in full by Professor Stuart A. Queen of the University of Kansas in his volume on Social Pathology, and a group of the stories, called Seven Girls, have been supplied by the Women's Protective Association of Cleveland and used widely in sociology classes in colleges and universities. Mrs. Wembridge, as everyone knows, has been the psychologist of the Association for the past three years and a half.

BUT PROBABLY not everyone has yet heard of the appointment of Dr. Catharine Brannick as psychiatrist on the staff of specialists of the same enterprising organization. Dr. Brannick comes to Cleveland directly from the Vocational Guidance Bureau of the Chicago Department of Education, and her impressive record of other achievements includes positions as director of the social service department of the Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary, as psychologist at the Sherburne Reformatory and the Juvenile Court of Chicago, and lectures at the Smith College School of Social Work and the University of Minnesota.

THE MICHIGAN State Conference of Social Work is cooperating with the University of Michigan in the person of Robert T. Lansdale, who has just started work as executive secretary of the one and instructor in the other. Mr. Lansdale's address is 107 Economics Building, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

MARIA LAMBIN, who has made surveys of dance halls in San Francisco, New York, and elsewhere, has recently become executive secretary of the United Parents Associations of Greater New York Schools, succeeding Maude Burgess.

AS SECRETARY of the Council on Immigrant Aid, New York, Dr. Robert T. Hill succeeds Bradley Buell. Mr. Buell has gone to New Orleans to direct the coordinating activities of the Council of Social Agencies, in association with Sherman Conrad, who directs the community chest activities of the Council.

BYRON T. HACKER has left the Brooklyn Children's Aid Society to become executive secretary of the Duvall County Welfare Board of Jacksonville, Fla. This sort of announcement, suggestive as it is of a social work revolution in Florida, may be expected to occur with growing frequency.

G. S. BILHEIMER has been executive secretary of the united financial campaign which the various units of the Y.M.C.A. in New York will conduct in January under the direction of a committee composed of twenty-five laymen and eight secretaries. The budgets of the various local branches will be lumped with the local quota of the national units. E. L. Mogge of the Financial Service Bureau of the National Council will act as campaign director.

R. F. HUDSON has resigned as executive secretary of the Social Service Bureau of Chattanooga, Tennessee, to fill the same office at the Alabama Tuberculosis Association, with headquarters in Birmingham.

ANNE A. STEVENS has resigned as General Director of the N. O. P. H. N., her resignation to take effect on January 1, while Beatrice Short of Des Moines, Ia. has joined the staff as Secretary for School Nursing.

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Do Tell.

A Bit of Gossip Now and Then Is Relished by the Best of Men

Squawk

Opening mail in the business office of The Survey is like tuning in on a radio—a lot of static, then the voice we love to hear, then—squawk. In this case the squawk comes first:

T. L. D. writes on a bill for his Graphic renewal that he'd rather throw $30,000 into the gutter than send us $3.

We thank you, sir, for your courteous letter.

* * *

Now for a voice we love to hear. P.E.R., Utica: Will you kindly give us your list of Utica subscribers to The Survey? We have made great efforts to interest local social workers in the magazine enough to get them to subscribe. This list will show us how deeply our efforts have taken root.

Encore, Robinson!

At last! A $1 edition of The Mind in the Making will be published this month by Harper. We have arranged for a special Survey Associates edition—same text, from the same plates, with cloth binding. When the edition is gone, that will be an end of it. Better order three or four copies now for use at Christmas time.

How Could You, Ohio?

Rumor has it that there will be 5,000 in attendance at the National Conference of Social Work in Cleveland next Spring. Just what you might expect of those Ohians, with Major Parker in Cincinnati and James F. Jackson heading up the Clevelanders. It will soon come to the point where we will have to admit to Howard Knight that Ohio has come to stay. Having the second largest state conference, Howard thought he had proved that point long ago.

The Streets of St. Louis

Elwood Street's ideas, like his twins, are healthy and vigorous. He has written us a three page letter outlining a good plan for increasing the circulation of The Survey. Want to try it in your city?

* * *

Aubrey Williams believes in feeding the hand that bites him. Aubrey usually writes us some variation of the theme "Why don't you publish more about Wisconsin?" But now he sends us a list of his Board with the fervent hope that we will go hard after those who are not subscribing.

* * *

Winken, Blinken and Nod—remember the old song? The Pacific Coast has their counterpart, not as headliners in a lullaby, but as three busy secretaries of state conferences—Anita, Aleta and Arlien.

What Do You Read?

You sbscribe to other magazines, of course. Why not subscribe to them through us? The Survey Book Department is equipped to handle subscriptions to all magazines. Wherever there are clubbing rates, we can get them for you. It saves time and money to do all your magazine ordering at once.

* * *

A new Survey book list has just been compiled. A copy is yours for the asking.

What Scranton Did

The social workers of Scranton, Pa., increased the Scranton subscription list 250% in about three weeks. In addition to creating a wider understanding of social work in their city, they earned for themselves a library of $218 worth of books You in your city can do likewise. Ask us how.

Della Harvey, formerly director of the Social Exchange of the Scranton Community Welfare Federation, joined the Survey's field staff on October 1. Miss Harvey is covering the Atlantic seaboard for the Survey. She is equipped with our traveling book display and will welcome invitations to attend state and local meetings of social workers, teachers, nurses, ministers and kindred groups.

J. D. K.

Now and then the business office of The Survey will try its hand as colyumnist.

Where Does Your City Stand?

The rating of cities of the United States of 50,000 population or more (1920 Federal census) with relation to the percentage of subscriptions (Survey and Survey Graphic). Figures at the right show only relative standing, and do not represent the number of subscriptions.

Senator Brookhart had no closer race than Scranton and Berkeley. Here is the East pitted against the West in another friendly contest. A reason lies behind each score. Scranton climbed to the top through a vigorous subscription campaign staged by local social workers, while the use of The Survey by the students of the University of California helped make Berkeley a close second.

1. Scranton, Pa.	.986	64. Tacoma, Wash.	.247	127. Tampa, Fla.	.096
2. Berkeley, Calif.	.985	65. Syracuse, N. Y.	.244	128. Haverhill, Mass.	.093
3. Lincoln, Nebr.	.927	66. Trenton, N. J.	.244	129. Somerville, Mass.	.086
4. Cambridge, Mass.	.663	67. Long Beach, Cal.	.242	130. Camden, N. J.	.078
5. Harrisburg, Pa.	.658	68. Chester, Pa.	.241	131. Jersey City, N. J.	.074
6. E. Orange, N. J.	.529	69. Canton, Ohio	.241	132. Hoboken, N. J.	.073
7. Hartford, Conn.	.515	70. Bethlehem, Pa.	.240	133. Ft. Worth, Texas	.066
8. Albany, N. Y.	.496	71. Seattle, Wash.	.238	134. Roanoke, Va.	.059
9. Pittsburgh, Pa.	.495	72. Bridgeport, Conn.	.236	135. Bayonne, N. J.	.039
10. Springfield, Ill.	.492	73. Duluth, Minn.	.232	136. Covington, Ky.	.035
11. Lancaster, Pa.	.491	74. Little Rock, Ark.	.230	137. San Antonio, Tex.	.031
12. Lansing, Mich.	.456	75. Detroit, Mich.	.230	138. E. St. Louis	.000
13. Columbus, Ohio	.452	76. Davenport, Iowa	.228		
14. Omaha, Nebr.	.443	77. Evansville, Ind.	.224		
15. Wilmington, Del.	.436	78. Racine, Wis.	.220		
16. Los Angeles, Calif.	.433	79. Topeka, Kans.	.220		
17. New Haven, Conn.	.393	80. Gary, Ind.	.218		
18. Rochester, N. Y.	.389	81. Worcester, Mass.	.217		
19. Cleveland, Ohio	.386	82. Terre Haute, Ind.	.213		
20. Grand Rapids, Mich.	.384	83. Rockford, Ill.	.212		
21. Cincinnati, Ohio	.372	84. Saginaw, Mich.	.209		
22. Washington, D.C.	.365	85. Buffalo, N. Y.	.209		
23. Portland, Ore.	.357	86. Ft. Wayne, Ind.	.207		
24. Baltimore, Md.	.351	87. Knoxville, Tenn.	.205		
25. Denver, Colo.	.344	88. Memphis, Tenn.	.204		
26. Dayton, Ohio	.340	89. Akron, Ohio	.202		
27. Toledo, Ohio	.337	90. Fall River, Mass.	.200		
28. Johnstown, Pa.	.328	91. New Bedford, Mass.	.198		
29. Schenectady, N. Y.	.326	92. Brockton, Mass.	.197		
30. Yonkers, N. Y.	.320	93. Troy, N. Y.	.194		
31. Boston, Mass.	.320	94. Spokane, Wash.	.192		
32. San Francisco, Cal.	.319	95. Utica, N. Y.	.191		
33. Philadelphia, Pa.	.319	96. Oakland, Cal.	.190		
34. Des Moines, Iowa	.317	97. Mobile, Ala.	.180		
35. Reading, Pa.	.315	98. Charleston, S. C.	.176		
36. Providence, R. I.	.314	99. Jacksonville, Fla.	.174		
37. Minneapolis, Minn.	.313	100. Flint, Mich.	.174		
38. Indianapolis, Ind.	.312	101. Birmingham, Ala.	.168		
39. Allentown, Pa.	.311	102. St. Joseph, Mo.	.167		
40. Chattanooga, Tenn.	.310	103. Holyoke, Mass.	.167		
41. Nashville, Tenn.	.305	104. Waterbury, Conn.	.163		
42. Wheeling, W. Va.	.304	105. Huntington, W. V.	.160		
43. Erie, Pa.	.301	106. Salt Lake City, Utah	.153		
44. Springfield, Ohio	.295	107. Macon, Ga.	.151		
45. Wichita, Kan.	.292	108. Altoona, Pa.	.150		
46. Oklahoma City, Okla.	.291	109. Houston, Tex.	.145		
47. Richmond, Va.	.285	110. Dallas, Texas	.145		
48. Atlanta, Ga.	.284	111. Savannah, Ga.	.145		
49. Sioux City, Iowa	.282	112. Lawrence, Mass.	.138		
50. Kansas City, Mo.	.280	113. Norfolk, Va.	.129		
51. Milwaukee, Wis.	.278	114. Newark, N. J.	.128		
52. Niagara Falls, N.Y.	.275	115. Passaic, N. J.	.125		
53. St. Paul, Minn.	.272	116. Elizabeth, N. J.	.125		
54. Manchester, N. H.	.269	117. Pawtucket, R. I.	.125		
55. New York City	.267	118. Tulsa, Okla.	.124		
56. Louisville, Ky.	.264	119. Paterson, N. J.	.118		
57. Chicago, Ill.	.263	120. Springfield, Mass.	115		
58. Portland, Me.	.261	121. Lynn, Mass.	.111		
59. St. Louis, Mo.	.259	122. Lowell, Mass.	.106		
60. Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	.257	123. El Paso, Texas	.103		
61. Atlantic City, N. J.	.255	124. Kansas City, Kan.	.099		
62. Binghamton, N. Y.	.253	125. South Bend, Ind.	.099		
63. Youngstown, Ohio	.250	126. New Orleans, La.	.098		

Rating by States

1. Delaware	.318
2. New York	.290
3. Massachusetts	.289
4. Connecticut	.282
5. New Hampshire	.280
6. California	.242
7. Maryland	.224
8. Ohio	.222
9. Pennsylvania	.219
10. Vermont	.213
11. Rhode Island	.197
12. Oregon	.193
13. Colorado	.186
14. Maine	.186
15. Michigan	.178
16. Illinois	.177
17. New Jersey	.166
18. Nebraska	.157
19. Minnesota	.150
20. Washington	.144
21. Wyoming	.129
22. Missouri	.123
23. Indiana	.122
24. Montana	.117
25. South Dakota	.116
26. Iowa	.116
27. Utah	.107
28. Wisconsin	.094
29. Nevada	.090
30. Idaho	.090
31. Kansas	.088
32. West Virginia	.083
33. Arizona	.081
34. Florida	.077
35. North Dakota	.071
36. Mississippi	.068
37. Virginia	.064
38. North Carolina	.060
39. Tennessee	.056
40. Georgia	.049
41. Alabama	.048
42. Oklahoma	.044
43. New Mexico	.044
44. Kentucky	.043
45. Arkansas	.036
46. Texas	.035
47. South Carolina	.034
48. Louisiana	.033

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COMMUNICATIONS

Orphanages

TO THE EDITOR: It seems to me that it is Mr. Reeder who fails to meet the real issue in that he merely reasserts his bad opinion of institutions on the ground that he believes most of them "have not changed in the last twenty years and but very little in the last fifty years" and that they do not accept the sphere and method of functioning he would assign to them. On him is the burden of proof, and he has not proven his case.

The notion that a few acceptable agencies "should not be used as a mantle to cover the vast majority" is not as wholesome as it sounds. There is this difference between material progress and spiritual progress—the former, like that of an army, is measured by the poorest, the weakest, the slowest; the latter is measured by the best. Child welfare work is not necessarily less spiritual when carried on in an institution. Institutions which are spiritually rich and intelligently conducted are not so tragically exceptional as Mr. Reeder infers. Most of them are in straitened circumstances. Only heavily endowed ones are widely advertised. Few managers are valiant pen-wielders. Is it better logic to say "Some institutions are bad, therefore institutions are pernicious," than to say "Some mothers are bad, therefore abolish family life," or to say "Some foster home agencies spend more time and energy on records and reports than on adjustments and supervision, therefore all foster home agencies are mercenary"?

I do not intend to write more letters or any articles. Therefore I want to use my present lapse into expression as fully as possible.

Will The Survey print this letter before the issue grows stale, and also an answer to some of the questions asked in my previous correspondence with the managing editor? These *are* matters of wide public interest as affecting the good faith and impartiality of the magazine, even though he found my suggestion to print the correspondence "impossible."

The Survey printed Mr. Reeder's article in the Graphic number of June first. It printed no word of rejoinder until the midmonthly number of September fifteenth. It advertised for sale reprints of Our Orphaned Asylums in the Graphic number of July first, as "fine ammunition for child-welfare workers," but sent me a comical, would-be stinging rebuke for asking why Mr. Reeder was given the unfair tactical advantage of an uncontroverted attacking article and a pre-publication view of all replies.

Why did you not invite an answer to be printed with the original article? Why did you suppress all replies for three and a half months, but meanwhile try to make a profit by selling copies of the insulting attack? How can you reconcile these things with a claim to conduct a non-partisan journal with a scientific approach to problems of social work?

SAMUEL LANGER

Superintendent Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum, San Francisco, California

1—Mr. Reeder crystallized his thirty years experience in the child-caring field in his article in the June Graphic. The fact that, himself an institution man, and recognizing the service of exceptional children's institutions, he had come to believe that much of our institutional work for children needs to be scrapped; that most of it needs to be readjusted; that the place for normal children is in the normal home; but that there are new and alluring opportunities for which existing institutions may reconstruct themselves, made his manuscript of extraordinary significance. Mr. Reeder's article stood on its own legs, and we see no reason to have solicited an article in rebuttal for publication in the same issue.

2—Our columns were open to those who disagreed with Mr. Reeder; but it is Survey procedure, which has stood the test of a long period of years, to give the author of an article a chance to reply to his critics in the same issue in which we publish their criticisms. This is kindred to giving a conference speaker opportunity to reply to his critics from the floor.

3—Mr. Langer's criticism reached us July 28th; two months subsequent to the appearance of Mr. Reeder's article; and too late for carrying out our procedure in the August Midmonthly. We do not carry a communicactions column in the Graphic. Our July and August Midmonthlies were cut to two-thirds normal size as a matter of summer economy, and we grouped the sheaf of communications pro and con, and Mr. Reeder's reply, in our September Midmonthly.

4—Mr. Langer's criticism was more than double the 500-word limit which, because of our meager space, we ordinarily set on communications; none the less we published it in full. It did not seem practical or pertinent to publish in addition his three subsequent letters.

5—When articles from The Survey are reprinted, as was the case of Mr. Reeder's, we frequently run off additional copies and try our best to sell them. The phrasing of the advertisement was open to criticism.

6—The editor of The Survey subscribes pretty fully to the conclusions Mr. Reeder has reached as result of his experience; but we should consider on its merits an article of equal value and interest, giving the contrary point of view. As we published Mr. Langer's rejoinder in full, at double ordinary length, in the first available issue after receipt, his strictures do not seem well founded.

THE EDITOR

Motors and Morality

TO THE EDITOR: With your friendly indulgence, I would like to make some comments on the article The Automobile in the Middle Ages contributed by Joseph K. Hart to The Survey of August 1. I am an admirer and a conscientious reader of everything that Mr. Hart writes. His point of view is one that I have, long ago, accepted as my own. If therefore I take issue with some of his utterances, it will be not as an opponent but as a friend.

Mr. Hart's thesis in this article, as in everything he writes, is that human problems must constantly be thought out afresh. Unthinking submission to tradition and convention always was, is and will be fraught with social disadvantage. In the present article, Mr. Hart applies this thesis to the prevailing complaint about our young people. The writer's attitude is that what may be moral dereliction from one point of view may, from a less antiquated point of view, be moral invention and discovery. Here, as always, he advocates the abandonment of traditional preconceptions and the toleration of new and original insights. Again, as always, he supports his position by dwelling upon the follies of the olden ways. He never lets us forget how stupid, cowardly and self-seeking have been the protagonists of authority in their repressions of realistic thought not only in the Middle Ages but also in our own midst.

It would be ignoble to take issue with Mr. Hart in any of these contentions. The unacceptable part of his clever article lies not so much in something that he explicitly says as in certain undercurrents; not so much in the inferences that he actually makes as in the inferences that he fails to prevent his reader from making.

Mr. Hart does not deny that there are inescapable moral

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distinctions. Yet, given the peculiar trend of his article, his failure emphatically to affirm such distinctions amounts to denial. His assault upon old fogyism is so relentless that many an "innocent bystander" has to suffer. He holds up traditionalism and conventionalism to such contempt that anything that can, by any possibility near or remote, be associated with them gets contemptible. One is almost surprised to see the writer using language itself—one of our hoariest traditions and most hide-bound conventions; not to mention the ciphers numbering his pages—a tradition derived from the distant Arabic past and a convention to which everybody in the world submits with utter abjectness.

All the absurdities of old fogyism can not efface the fact that there is a difference between health and sickness, between effort and indolence, between competence and incompetence, between sobriety and drunkenness, between honesty and dishonesty, between reliability and unreliability. Should Mr. Hart's own debtor abscond, or his chauffeur be intoxicated while driving, or his physician prefer to remain at the golf game when urgently summoned in an hour of bitter need, it is not likely that Mr. Hart would rejoice in the fact that we have here some moral experimentation, novel and illuminating. It is probable that, in such contingencies, he might find himself entirely of one mind with the most unprogressive. Mr. Hart's article, to be sure, says nothing to the contrary. Yet its entire atmosphere hints the contrary. Old fogyism is so repulsive that everything connected with it grows repulsive and, since the moral contrasts just mentioned are connected with it, these contrasts must be repulsive. To forestall such an inference Mr. Hart should have affirmed those distinctions outright.

Mr. Hart very properly and ably insists upon the importance of independent thinking. His essential grievance against traditionalism is that it substitutes quotations for thinking. But what if some of those moral adventures for which Mr. Hart plays the apologist were to impair young people's ability to think? What if intoxicants, joy rides, jazz, road houses and sexual risks were to render young men and women not more capable but less capable of mental independence? Will the fact that these diversions constitute voyages of moral discovery save the day?

Questions may also be raised with regard to the drift of the idea, (already anticipated in Veblen's Theory of the Leisure Class), that contact with mechanisms tends to wean people from Theism. Neither Veblen before him nor our own author support their proposition with any statistical or psychological data that would really constitute a valid proof. Yet this is of trivial moment by comparison with something else, namely, the implication that Theism is, as matter of course, false.

Our writer has probably committed what the New Psychologists call rationalization. For some reason or other—going back to forgotten days of infancy, if we are to believe the New Psychologists—our author can not stomach certain religionists. There is nothing in itself reprehensible about such aversions; all of us have them and must reckon with them. Had our writer candidly stated: "I dislike certain church people," there would have been little to censure. We could simply reply: "You are not the only one who dislikes church people. You are as much entitled to your dislikes on this score as I am to my own dislikes on other scores."

The trouble is that the writer, following a well known psychological law, gives us not an admission of his feelings but a rationalization of them. His logic, cast into an old fashioned syllogism, reduces to this:

Mechanisms are useful objects.

People who are familiar with mechanisms do not care for God.

Therefore God is a fiction.

If the writer is really persuaded that God is a fiction, I have

WITH the opening of the Fall Quarter, on October fifth, the School began its twenty-eighth year here. Through a six-quarter course of graduate character, the School prepares candidates for preferred positions in social work.

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The

Mind in the Making

The Relation of Intelligence to Social Reform

By James Harvey Robinson

SURVEY ASSOCIATES EDITION

$1

PUBLICATION DAY OCTOBER 30

Printed from the plates of the original edition of which 100,000 copies were sold at $2.50. Cloth bound. 235 pages. Including the invaluable appendix, "Some Suggestions in Regard to Reading."

In describing THE PURPOSE OF THIS VOLUME Professor Robinson writes:

"If some magical transformation could be produced in men's ways of looking at themselves and their fellows, no inconsiderable part of the evils which now afflict society would vanish away or remedy themselves automatically.

"If the majority of influential persons held the opinions and occupied the point of view that a few rather uninfluential people now do, there would, for instance, be no likelihood of another great war; the whole problem of 'labor and capital' would be transformed and attenuated; national arrogance, race animosity, political corruption, and inefficiency would all be reduced below the danger point.

"As an old Stoic proverb has it, men are tormented by the opinions they have of things, rather than by the things themselves. This is eminently true of our worst problems today. We have available knowledge and ingenuity and material resources to make a far fairer world than that in which we find ourselves, but various obstacles prevent our intelligently availing ourselves of them.

"The object of this book is to substantiate this proposition, to exhibit with entire frankness the tremendous difficulties that stand in the way of such a beneficent change of mind, and to point out as clearly as may be some of the measures to be taken in order to overcome them. . .

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no quarrel with him. All that I object to is the logic of the above syllogism which, even if the second premise had been substantiated, would still be a violent handling of Barbara Celarent.

I must hasten to allow that Mr. Hart does not say all of this expressly. You can not "catch him with the goods." But the implication is there. The insinuation is there. The inference has to be drawn because the writer does nothing to prevent its being drawn.

The same psychic complex asserts itself in the following sentence, still discussing the automobile: "No amount of arguing, or coaxing, or begging, or praying will avail to make it go, if an essential part is missing or if an adjustment is out of order." To this I would rejoin: "Never has an automobile budged until somebody has offered something closely akin to arguing, coaxing, begging and praying." Without intelligent assistance at some point or other, the automobile is useless. We do not exactly pray to the keeper of the garage or of the service station (although it were easy to imagine emergencies in which some hapless tourist's entreaties might amount to prayer); but we ask him, we summon him, we pay him, we persuade and sometimes no doubt, we argue with, coax and beg him. In other words, we are constantly dealing with personal, with non-mechanical factors no matter how ingenious our machines. The role of mechanism is always subsidiary to that of personal relations even in the life of the most nonchalant gas fiend. Never is there a mechanism but begins in personal relations and ends in personal relations. You get your automobile from persons and you use it in your dealings with persons.

Mr. Hart would never have written this essay or any other essay were it not for the vast world of social and personal relations enfolding yet far transcending the automobile and all its tribe. A Theist is simply one who finds the concept of personality more suitable than that of mechanism for handling the totality of his experience; just as everybody in the world, Theist or Non-Theist, finds the concept of personality more suitable for handling certain phases of experience.

I would not have troubled you with this letter if Mr. Hart were the only writer of our time who offers us rationalization under the guise of reasoning. But the tendency is widespread. On every hand we find writers with perfectly excusable preferences and aversions which they do not candidly admit. The result is arguments whose purport is that the arguer's likes and dislikes have a kind of universal validity. This, of course, is untenable. Nothing has universal validity except the objectively real. So far as subjective predilections go, those of one person are as good as those of another—no better and no worse.

ABRAHAM CRONBACH

Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati.

Mr. Hart Replies

Mr. Cronbach is "surprised" that I consent to use language in my articles because language is "one of the hoariest and most hidebound of conventions." But, as Mr. Cronbach's criticism very well shows, language is not that, at all. Language is a living, growing, changing instrument of expression which no two people use in exactly the same way, and which not all the standardizers of all the academies of the ages have ever been able to reduce to a final convention. In proof whereof, I have only to point out that, in most of the cases in which Mr. Cronbach criticizes my article on the Automobile, he misses the point of my argument.

He would make the distinction between health and disease absolute. But doctors do not do so. He would make the distinction between effort and indolence absolute. But workers do not do so. He would make the distinction between compe-

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tence and incompetence absolute. But phychologists do not do so.

The only way by which the race will be able to find out whether joy rides and jazz will destroy the race's capacity to think is by making the experiment. It seems indisputable that refraining from those things has not greatly increased our capacity to think.

As for the doctrine of Theism, I was not concerned with that in my article. I am not opposed to it. In fact, I have a good many reasons for believing that if my mind were completely analyzed a very considerable belief in Theism would be revealed. But I am opposed to the ancient anthropomorphic Theisms which locate God in a particular conception of the universe, and wrap Him up in dogmas, moralities and theologisms that deny the right of a newer age to live its own life. All that I am saying is that the automobile has given to millions of young people a freedom from that sort of Theism; and since the advocates of Theism—and of religion, generally—seem largely unable to adjust themselves to the world of the automobile, all they can do is to scold the young people who are experimenting with life, or to scold about them.

The syllogism that Mr. Cronbach finds implicit in my article falls to the ground for the same reason. The real argument is this:

Mechanisms are real and inevitable instruments.

People who are familiar with mechanisms do not care for a God who tries to make you believe that mechanisms either do not exist or are wrong and should not exist.

Hence, they do not long keep on believing in such a God.

Doubtless, the driver of an automobile sometimes has to pray to a garage man to have his car fixed up. But that is not the same as praying to the car to go. And if the driver were willing to use his own mind in order to understand his own car he would not have to coax or compel some other mind to take the job over.

All that I am arguing for is the logic of the present facts: our personal lives are being lived in the midst of a world of mechanisms—impersonal, realistic, compelling mechanisms. We can no longer lazily say that "things will come out all right." They will come out just the way the machine brings them out, and no other way. If we have energy and intelligence, we can find out what that way is, for the machine can be calculated. If we have energy and intelligence, we can bring them out, at least in some measure, the way we want them to come out, because in a mechanical world, we can invent means for the attainment of the ends we desire. That calls for investigation, for experimentation. If we adults were thoroughly committed to lives of investigation and experimentation, our young people would not be so completely lost. They would find fellowship and understanding with us. But life must go on. And because we older ones will not experiment, except in the making of new machines, our young people are compelled to experiment as to the uses of those machines after they are made. It's a costly business. It could be better planned and organized. But we are not likely to do it. It's easier to rest on our materialistic achievements, to scold our young people for the ways in which they carry out the logic of our mechanistic activities, and to rely, for ourselves, at least, on the mercy of some pre-mechanistic anthropomorphic God for our salvation from our own machines. It's a story that has many lesser analogues in the evolution of humanity.

JOSEPH K. HART

Spoiled Meats

TO THE EDITOR: I was greatly shocked when I came across the following statement, which appeared in the June 15 number on page 349: "There are some ethical leaders who hold that morality has made some gain since, *for example, the day when Moses taught the Hebrews that* (*Continued on page 107*)

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[Signed] ARTHUR KELLOGG,
Business Manager.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 25th day of September 1925.
[Seal] MARTHA HOHMANN,
Commissioner of Deeds, City of New York,
New York County Clerk's No. 148; New York County Register's No. 26032.
My Commission Expires May 20, 1926.

Communications

(*Continued from page* 105)

it was all right for them to sell their spoiled meats to strangers."

I am quite unaware of the existence of such a commision to the Hebrews and would greatly appreciate being referred to the source of your information. Curiously, somewhat further down the page, you make the following statement: "With adequate kindling, even a little fire would become a flame that would burn through the tangled wildernesses of old superstitions and ignorances and ghastly intolerances." It is also true that with adequate kindling, even a little spark, such as you light through the above, can grow into a considerable fire of misunderstanding which may be very difficult to extinguish.

Knowing your strong inclination for justice and fair play, as well as for truth in every statement of fact, I am sure you will make some effort to rectify such a mistatement which has not even the justification that it does some good.

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The Biblical passage upon which the statement to which Mr. Kohs takes exception was based is found in Deuteronomy, Chapter 14, verse 21, and is as follows: "Ye shall not eat of anything that dieth of itself: thou mayest give it unto the sojourner that is within thy gates that he may eat it; or thou mayest sell it unto a foreigner." Similar moralities exist among all primitive peoples—and among some not so primitive. J. K. H.

Why Tolerate Smallpox?

(*Continued from page* 94)

of the experience of nations. Opponents of compulsory vaccination are exulting over the apparent failure of compulsory vaccination in Germany where 11,000 cases of smallpox were reported in the period 1917-1922. I have not been able to secure data concerning the 3,000 of these cases which occurred in 1917 and 1918, but the accompanying table compiled from data published in the Epidemiological Intelligence of the League of Nations shows the distribution of the cases occurring in the period 1919-1923. It is at once apparent that Germany's experience in vaccination enforcement enabled that nation, in spite of great political upheaval and reorganization, to return within five years to pre-war conditions with respect to smallpox.

SMALLPOX PREVALENCE

	United States Pop. 101,000,000	England and Wales Pop. 38,000,000	Germany Pop. 60,000,000
1919	55,089	294	5,012
1920	91,565	263	2,042
1921	91,611	315	688
1922	28,126	973	215
1923	53,921	2,485	17

Smallpox presents an unusually striking instance of failure of improving sanitary standards to check, or even hold even, a specific communicable disease. The course it has run in California, as might have been expected, is the more deplorable because we have a well-known and long-used preventive. The same failure in the control of other communicable diseases may be expected unless the appropriate measures of individual immunization are used whenever they are known. Nothing but immunization will wipe out diphtheria, as nothing but vaccination will wipe out smallpox. The experience of California shows the result of opposition to such principles and their neglect.

JOHN N. FORCE, M.D., DR. P. H.

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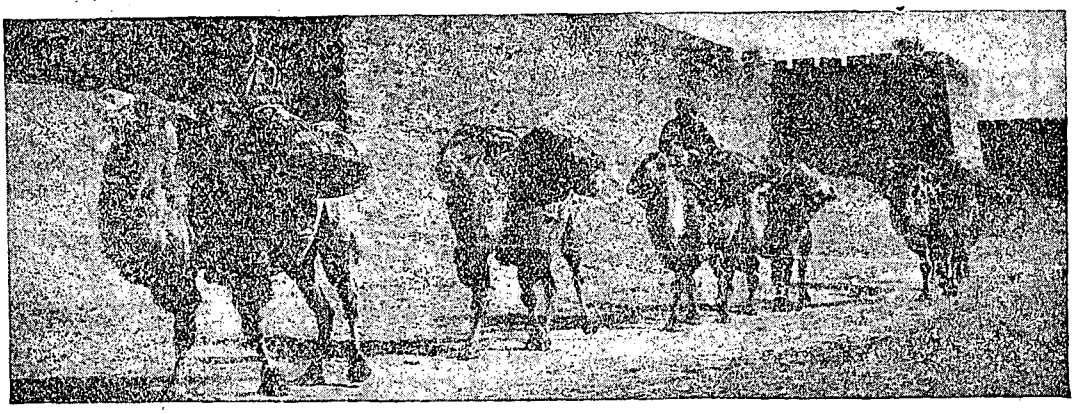

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